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ABSTRACT

The reference text is designed to help junior and senior high school teachers to integrate teaching about the handicapped into their social studies curriculum. An initial chapter distinguishes between handicaps and disabilities. Chapter 2 gives the major reasons for including handicapism in the social study curriculum: to understand the potential effects of handicapped people on the handicapped themselves and on the nonhandicapped, and to provide a basis for future citizen decision making. The next two chapters reveiw stereotypes and attitudes toward the handicapped and suggest simulation activities to encourage greater understanding of specific handicaps. Fifteen student projects are suggested, including making photo essays on the disabled and writing biographies of disabled persons in the community. Using community resource people is the subject of Chapter 6, while Chapter 7 focuses on obstacles to independent living in the community. Examples of relevant aspects of study in anthropology, economics, government and civics, psychology, history, and sociology are considered. Social issues regarding employment, education, health, public facilities, family, and housing are noted, as well as an approach for studying such issues. The final chapter presents an approach to evaluating student attitudes and knowledge regarding handicapped persons. (CL)

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HANDICAPISM AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITY: TEACHING ABOUT THE DISABLED IN SOCIAL STUDIES

James P. Shaver &
Charles K. Curtis

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INTRODUCTION

Court cases and legislation in regard to handicapped children have had considerable impact on the schools in recent years. Decisions in cases such as *PARC* v. *Pennsylvania* and *Mills* v. *Board of D.C.*, both handed down in 1972, affirmed the right of all children to education. Several states, such as Massachusetts in 1974, passed laws providing for the education of disabled children in regular school settings to the extent possible. It was the federal Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94–142), however, which made *mainstreaming* a key word among school people across the country.

As important as the concept of bringing disabled children into the mainstream of education is, the court cases and legislation have deeper significance for social studies teachers. They signal a social movement that extends beyond schooling to the society's general treatment of a hitherto frequently neglected minority—the handicapped.

Few writings in social studies education have addressed themselves to this significant curricular area, although there has been some attention to mainstreaming in social studies, largely at the elementary school level (e.g., Herlihy & Herlihy, 1979, 1980; Ochoa & Shuster, 1980). We were pleased when the Foundation for Exceptional Children asked us to prepare a reference text to assist junior and senior high school teachers in integrating handicapped education in social studies. We hope that classroom teachers will find that our discussion and suggestions make teaching about the handicapped seem not only desirable but feasible. It should be emphasized that this reference text is directed at teaching *about* the handicapped in social studies, *not* at teaching social studies *to* the handicapped in regular social studies classes.

The intent of the Foundation for Exceptional Children was to produce a brief publication to aid social studies teachers in teaching about the handicapped. It was not intended that the reference text present a full compilation of information about the handicapped or portray, through personal accounts, the effects of the obstacles that the disabled face and their daily efforts to overcome those barriers. Many teachers will want a broader informational and emotional context before they will feel comfortable in teaching about the handicapped.

Fortunately, there are excellent books available to help teachers fill in their background on the handicapped. Three in particular are readable and interesting, even compelling, as well as recent and informative. Each contains information on the history of treatment of the handicapped, on the social, economic, and political barriers handicapped persons face, and on the legal remedies that are beginning to emerge, as well as recommendations for future action. Perhaps even more important, each contains personal reports which convey an emotionally moving human perspective appropriate to the toll that unjust discrimination and inequities have wreaked on disabled persons. We recommend any of the three, and believe that teachers who read all three will not be disappointed in the dimensions added to their perspectives on the handicapped. In fact, we believe that you will want to encourage your students to read the books, too. The three books are Frank Bowe's *Handicapping America—Barriers to Disabled People* (1978);

Shirley Cohen's *Special People—A Brighter Future for Everyone with Physical, Mental, and Emotional Disabilities* (1977); and Sonny Kleinfield's *The Hidden Minority—A Profile of Handicapped Americans* (1979).

Many interesting and worthwhile topics compete for the limited time available for the social studies program. For that reason, we address early (in Chapter 2) the relevance of the handicapped—a minority that suffers from the same type of stereotyping and prejudice as have ethnic groups and women—to the goals of social studies. We also emphasize throughout that teaching about the handicapped will fit with much of what is already taught in social studies and does not call for new courses. This reference text is dedicated to the hope that such integration will become reality.

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1
WHO ARE THE HANDICAPPED?

Recent federal legislation (P.L. 94–142) established the rights of handicapped children to individualized education programs based on their special needs and to education in the least restrictive environment possible. Other legislation and numerous court decisions have recognized the legal and human rights of the handicapped. The concerns of legislators and jurists for the rights of the handicapped reflect a growing societal awareness of the special problems and needs of people whose disabilities have frequently resulted in social discrimination and isolation from the mainstream of society. In large part that awareness has come from increased social agitation and political pressure on the part of handicapped persons and their advocates.

That the handicapped would push for social change through legislation and litigation is not surprising. Despite the fact that disabilities cut across the sexes, ethnic groupings, and social strata, disabled persons have been treated differentially as a single group. Special educators (e.g., Telford & Sawrey, 1967, pp. 37–41) have suggested that in that regard the disabled and minority ethnic groups have much in common. The disabled, too, have been segregated, stereotyped, subjected to prejudice, and made vulnerable to inequities in housing, employment, and education. Bogdan and Biklen (1977) have suggested that the concept of *handicapism* is as applicable to describe the beliefs and practices in regard to the disabled as racism and sexism are in referring to beliefs and practices toward ethnic minorities and women. And, handicapped education stems from the same type of concerns with attitudes toward minorities and their civil rights as do ethnic and women's studies.

DISABILITIES AND HANDICAPS

But, who are those who suffer from handicapism? First, it is necessary to identify the mental, physical, and emotional disabilities that are commonly regarded as handicaps in American society.

How would you respond to the question, Who are the handicapped? For many people, the handicapped are the mentally retarded, the blind, the deaf, and those without limbs. Often, we can readily identify individuals with these disabilities when we encounter them, and we have no problem imagining many of the ways that these disabilities would make normal daily activities very difficult. There are, however, others in the disabled population.

Estimates vary as to the number of Americans who have some kind of mental or physical impairment (see Bowe, 1978, p. 17; Kleinfield, 1979, p. 32). About 36 million appears to be a realistic figure, although some suggest that an estimate as high as 50 million would not be unreasonable. While these numbers may seem to be large, not all these people will be categorized as handicapped.

Disabilities are not necessarily handicaps, and it is helpful to distinguish between the two. A disability or combination of disabilities becomes a handicap only when the condition limits or impedes the person's ability to function normally. When the type or degree of disability has a detrimental effect on an individual's ability to do such things as learn, work, move about the community easily, and have satisfactory social relationships, then, to some extent, the individual is handicapped.

According to this definition, some disabilities may not be handicaps. Each disability must be viewed in terms of its effects in specific contexts to determine whether it is handicapping. For example, the loss of an arm or a leg would be a disability. An amputee who completed his or her education in regular classrooms successfully, without special assistance, might later find that his or her employment opportunities in industry are limited. In that context, that person is handicapped.

Another example suggests a disability often overlooked. Size can be a handicap, also. There may be as many as 100,000 dwarfs in the United States. Since most are of normal intelligence, learning problems for dwarfs are usually no greater than they are for most students (although the height of tables in chemistry laboratories, for example, can pose difficulties). However, extremely short people face numerous difficulties in their daily lives, and have joined organizations such as the National Association for the Handicapped to bring their problems to public attention (Kleinfield, 1975). Included are the possibilities of being injured in crowds, washroom facilities designed for persons of normal height, bus steps that are difficult to reach, furniture that is much too large, lack of proper sized clothing in stores, and reluctance to hire them for many jobs. Of course, being large can also be handicapping, although for many professional athletes, being tall and/or bulky is an asset.

Inability to perform physical or mental tasks is not the only way in which disabilities result in handicaps. Disabled persons frequently do not meet common standards of feminine beauty or masculine prowess. Low self esteem sometimes results (as it may with the nondisabled). Despair and a sense of alienation can come to dominate the person's thoughts, as Goffman's (1965) portrayals of the disabled indicate so movingly. Lack of feelings of self worth and fear of others' reactions to one's disability can become a handicapping condition. Attitude toward self is often mentioned as a major problem for the disabled.

The attitudes of others can also be handicapping. When employers lack confidence in the work abilities of the disabled, or when nonhandicapped persons are reluctant to socialize with them, the result of this handicapism is the same as with racism or sexism—it limits the potential of the minority group.

Attitudes are handicapping in other ways. People have a tendency to attribute additional disabling characteristics to persons with single impairments. Those with cerebral palsy and the hearing impaired are often considered to be retarded, the retarded are thought to be amoral or oversexed, the obese are thought of as jolly and contented, and paraplegics are thought to be morose. Frequently, too, persons are perceived solely in terms of their disabilities, without recognition that there are many differences among disabled people who, in fact, have the same desires and hopes as the nondisabled. Such attitudes lead to self fulfilling prophecies: Disabled persons act and feel as they are expected to act and feel—and are thus handicapped by the attitudes of others.

WHO, THEN, ARE THE HANDICAPPED?

Since disabilities are handicaps only when they result in limitations on a person's ability to function adequately, it may not seem realistic to deal at all with general categories of handicapped people. Yet we do know that many disabilities, by their nature and by the nature of people's reactions to them, are usually handicapping. For example, we know that for educational purposes, children with certain mental, physical, or emotional impairments cannot succeed in regular classrooms without special instruction, and, in some cases, without the additional assistance of support services.

Public Law 94–142 specifically identified the educationally handicapped as children who are mentally retarded, hard of hearing, speech impaired, deaf, orthopedically impaired, visually disabled, learning disabled, or seriously emotionally disturbed. Each of these categories is the generic label for disabling conditions that may, for different individuals, vary in cause, in the degree to which they are handicapping, and in the specific educational needs that result. Within the visually handicapped category, for example, there will be children whose impairment may be congenital or acquired, partial or complete. Among the children who will be grouped under the orthopedically impaired label will be those whose physical disabilities are the consequences of diseases such as arthritis, cerebral palsy, or muscular dystrophy. Also in this group will be children who have suffered injuries that resulted in serious damage to the spinal cord or in the loss of one or more limbs. Some of the orthopedically impaired will have multiple disabilities and some will not.

Public Law 94–142 also included children with specific learning disabilities in its definition of *handicapped*. *Learning disabilities* is a general term for disorders related to motor activity, perception, memory, language development, and social behavior. Learning disabilities exist when a child of average intelligence experiences difficulty in acquiring and using knowledge and skills, with a discrepancy of 2 or more years between the child's intellectual potential and his or her level of performance. Learning disabilities are much more subtle than physical impairments or mental retardation, and the child with specific learning disabilities is much less obvious to the observer.

Disabilities will be handicapping in environments other than the classroom. In the following chapters, students will be asked to consider the effects in athletics, the visual and performing arts, recreation, social relationships, the world of work, and daily life routine.

RECAP

Even when a disability has been medically or psychologically diagnosed and labeled, we can only estimate the degree to which it will be a handicap. Disabled persons are individuals with unique characteristics, and they respond to their conditions in different ways. Occasionally these responses are such that we may be forced to reassess our opinions about the limiting effects of specific impairments. Some students may be surprised to learn of limbless Thalidomide victims bearing and raising children successfully, of retarded couples marrying and living satisfying lives in the community, of blind students completing university programs, and of physically impaired runners and swimmers with outstanding times. Putting labels on disabilities may be useful (and in some cases may even be required by law) to provide handicapped persons with needed services. It is important, however, that we not overgeneralize about the effects of a disability or otherwise allow our perceptions of the disability to cause us to act in such a manner that we become a handicap to the disabled person.

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2
WHY TEACH ABOUT THE HANDICAPPED IN SOCIAL STUDIES?

Those in social studies education are a varied lot. Some see themselves as history teachers, some as economics, sociology, or psychology teachers. Some are concerned with teaching—in government, civics, and American problems courses—about our government and its use to arrive at decisions about controversial issues. But, despite what appear to be widely differing interests, there is a common thread: the belief that a central purpose of social studies, regardless of the course title, is citizenship education, in particular, promotion of those American values and attitudes crucial to our democratic form of government.

Little wonder, then, that social studies teachers have, among all teachers, been particularly alert to the need to deal with the beliefs and attitudes which have tended to deny the members of some groups the opportunity to participate fully in the political, economic, and social life of our society. Two "isms" have been of particular concern—racism and sexism. In recent years, as pointed out in the prior chapter, another "ism" has become evident—handicapism. It is consistent with the goals of social studies teachers that we now direct attention in our courses to handicapism—those beliefs and attitudes that serve to deprive handicapped persons of opportunities for full participation.

During the 1960's and 1970's, the concerns for racism and sexism resulted in Black studies and women's studies courses and programs. Perhaps more important, however, were the efforts to integrate study of ethnic groups and of women into regular social studies courses. The *Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education*, published by the National Council for the Social Studies in 1976, encouraged that ethnic studies be included in the total social studies curriculum, as well as in the total school program. On the recognition that textbooks are a central instructional tool in social studies, analyses of textbook content and illustrations have been done, in part to encourage publishers to include meaningful material about ethnic group members and women. A more important aim, however, has been to increase awareness of sexism or racism—or what was more likely the avoidance of either—in textbooks so that teachers could introduce relevant material on their own. Teaching suggestions and units have been prepared to help social studies teachers treat racism and sexism in their courses.

INCLUDING HANDICAPISM IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

The social studies curriculum is already very full, and it is not likely that a course on handicapped studies will be added in most schools. Moreover, teachers already feel the pressures of time in trying to include all they would like to treat in their individual courses. But because the denial of full opportunity is so critical in our society, integration of the study of handicapism in the curriculum is as vital as it was with racism and sexism. At times, a special unit or special activities will be in order. At other times, it may be sufficient to mention the concerns of the handicapped in connection with other topics under consideration.

Social studies teachers will, we believe, want to include education about the handicapped in their courses for a number of reasons. In our

democratic society, human worth and dignity is a fundamental ideal. And part of that ideal is a belief that each individual, regardless of race, religion, economic status, or now, handicapping condition, deserves full opportunity to participate in and enjoy the benefits of life. When individuals are denied that opportunity, social studies teachers committed to citizenship education will be concerned. Because the denial of opportunity is frequently based on unfounded beliefs and attitudes, we must provide experiences that will help young people develop sound views of the handicapped.

Clearly, then, a major reason for including handicapped education in social studies is because handicapism has strong negative effects on the handicapped. However, another reason is perhaps equally important—the effects of handicapism on the nonhandicapped. Those effects could be thought of in economic terms—the loss of human resources when discrimination thwarts the fullest possible employment of handicapped persons and use of their talents. Or, the effects could be thought of in political terms—the loss of creative energy needed to deal with the problems facing our society when the handicapped cannot participate fully. But the personal, human loss is even more fundamental. Handicapism is personally degrading to the handicapped; but it is also degrading to the nonhandicapped. It has been recognized that those who are racists, who deny ethnic minorities their personal and social rights, demean themselves as well. And so it is with handicapism. Human worth and dignity refers not only to doing something for others, but to one's own humaneness. And basic to that quality is understanding of and feeling for others, especially those somehow different from oneself.

The humaneness of understanding and empathy is an important end of citizenship in itself. Without that quality in individual citizens, the quality of life in the society suffers both because of the tensions and injustices that result and because the feeling of community that is so vital to well being is impaired.

Understanding and empathy are also vital in the citizen's role as decisionmaker and participant. Whether and how to remediate the effects of racism, sexism, and handicapism have raised difficult policy questions, because many citizens fail to appreciate the feelings of those discriminated against, in part because the immediate personal and economic costs of changing the status quo are often high. Decisions about such issues are not easy, as even a cursory study of our nation's history can reveal. However, in recent years minority activism has become a successful means to influence government and private decisions about discriminating practices, and questions about how and to what extent to participate politically have taken on particular poignancy. A major citizenship goal in including handicapped education in social studies, then, must be to help students understand the issues raised by handicapism so that they will be better prepared to think about and act on those issues as citizens—not just as adults, but in their daily lives in and out of school.

PURPOSE OF THE BOOK

The premise of this reference text is that activities to help understand the handicapped are important because of their potential effects on the handicapped and the nonhandicapped, and because they help to set a necessary context for citizen decisionmaking and action in regard to handicapism.

The content of individual social studies courses has important contributions to make, too. Viewing the handicapped from different subject matter perspectives can be an important influence on young people. Seeing that many influential people in our country's history, and in the history of the world, have been disabled can help students to realize that handicapped people have normal interests and can lead lives that are not only normal, but even exemplary in many ways. History can also offer important information on changing views toward disabilities over the years, as anthropology can provide insights into the influence of culture on what attributes are considered to be handicapping. Sociology can contribute understanding of how social norms and role expectations can have debilitating effects on disabled persons, and psychology can help the student to understand the nature and force of prejudice and stereotypes as elements of handicapism. Perspectives from economics are essential in understanding many of the losses to society through handicapism, and in the consideration of proposals to reduce its effects. These are but a few examples of the importance of the subject matter areas of social studies to the student's own understanding of the handicapped and handicapism and to the student's ability to

make well founded decisions about the social issues that revolve around handicapism.

You may be one of the many social studies teachers who already deal with handicapism in the classroom—perhaps because the mainstreaming of handicapped children in regular classrooms made study of the handicapped a pressing need. Or you may want to begin doing so, both because of the personal and societal effects of handicapism, and because it must be a high priority of citizenship concern as "the new minority" continues to voice its dissatisfactions and influence legislation and litigation. This reference text is intended to help you accomplish the following goals:

A. To help students understand and empathize with what it means to be handicapped.
   1. To be aware of various disabling conditions.
   2. To understand the restrictions imposed by disabling conditions.
   3. To understand the restrictions that are imposed on disabled persons by the human and physical environment.
   4. To understand the potentials and limitations of corrective devices for the disabled.
   5. To appreciate variety among handicapped persons.
      a. That handicaps vary in severity, but rarely affect mind or body totally.
      b. That handicapped persons vary as much in their interests, abilities, and personal characteristics as nonhandicapped persons do.

B. To help students be aware of their own beliefs and feelings toward the disabled.
   1. To be aware of the nature of stereotypes and prejudice.
   2. To be aware of the similarities among racism, sexism, and handicapism.
   3. To examine their own thoughts about and feelings toward the handicapped.
   4. To be aware that handicapism denies humaneness to the nondisabled as well as the disabled.

C. To help students understand how the physical and social environment can be improved so that disabilities will not be handicapping.

D. To provide students with varying subject matter perspectives and information on the handicapped.

E. To make students aware of laws and litigation in regard to the handicapped.

F. To make students aware of policy issues in regard to the handicapped and better able to come to decisions about them.

Each of these goals is addressed on the following pages with a variety of instructional suggestions. It is our hope that social studies teachers will teach special units on the handicapped and handicapism, and also introduce handicapped education throughout their courses whenever the opportunity can be found to apply social studies concepts to the understanding of the disabled and the reduction of handicapism.

3
UNDERSTANDING THE HANDICAPPED: STEREOTYPES AND ATTITUDES

The most fundamental objective in handicapped education in social studies is to help students understand what it means to be handicapped. There are two dimensions to this understanding: One involves insights into the limiting effects of disabilities; the other is appreciation that handicapped persons, while limited in some ways, have the same interests and are as diverse as nonhandicapped persons.

AN OVERVIEW

Adequate understanding, or comprehension, of what it means to be handicapped is both cognitive and affective (emotive). That is, it is important to *know* what constraints disabilities can place on people. It is equally important to have *felt* what it is like to be so constrained. This and the next three chapters deal with student attitudes, simulating handicaps, projects, and community resource people—and each is aimed at helping students to gain both knowledge and affective appreciation. All four chapters are concerned with helping students to comprehend the constraints of disabilities. Chapters 5 and 6 in particular suggest opportunities to acquaint students with the diversity among handicapped persons and with the normal interests and life patterns of handicapped persons.

Two points need to be mentioned in regard to the teaching suggestions in this chapter and the rest of this reference text. First, they are not intended to be all inclusive. You will likely think of other exercises and projects, some more suited to your particular students and settings. Often, too, it will be productive to involve your students in developing learning activities about the handicapped, particularly with disabilities that are difficult to simulate, such as the gross motor effects of cerebral palsy or the subtle effects of mental retardation and learning disabilities. To say to students, "Here are some characteristics of a disability. Now what situations can you imagine that would help you to know how it feels to be so disabled?" presents a conceptual challenge that can itself set learning in process. Second, the order of the sections is not meant to be an instructional sequence. The suggestions in the student attitudes and simulating handicaps chapters (3 and 4) will lay a foundation for the projects and community resource people chapters (5 and 6). But it may, for example, be instructive to do some simulations after your students have done projects or spoken with handicapped persons or experts in the field.

Chapters 3 through 6 bear the same relationship to the rest of the reference text as the chapters on student attitudes and simulations do to those on projects and resource persons. That is, we assume that activities that give students a sense of the effects of disabilities and of the normality of handicapped persons achieve goals that are important in themselves, but they also lay a basis for other activities. The latter activities, such as studying about the handicapped from different subject matter perspectives and considering social issues that arise from the desire to gain equality of opportunity for the handicapped, are likely to be more meaningful for students who have some appreciation of what it is like to be handicapped. But all activities to raise the students' level of sensitivity need not, and probably should not, precede more cognitively oriented studies. Some intermixing is probably

ideal for motivational purposes and so that experience is tempered with thought.

STUDENT ATTITUDES

A major reason for including study of the handicapped in social studies is to influence student attitudes toward the disabled. The most effective and most justifiable strategy is to approach the matter of attitudes directly, encouraging the students to examine their own attitudes rather than trying to influence them subtly. An excellent starting place is to be sure that certain concepts are at the students' command. The following pages include a brief discussion of four crucial concepts (frame of reference, stereotypes, prejudice, and attitudes) and suggestions for teaching them.

Frame of Reference

A powerful concept for students is that of frame of reference, because it helps them to understand why they and others have the attitudes they do, and why they differ. Every person has a set of beliefs or ideas about reality, about what has been, is, will be, can be, and should be. These beliefs are the result of the person's past experiences. The extent to which two individuals' frames of reference are congruent will depend on the similarity in their backgrounds. For example, a person who has had a disabled person as a family member is likely to have a frame of reference different from a person who has not.

Frames of reference are extremely important because, consciously or not, our thoughts and actions are influenced by them. For example, those of us who do not know handicapped persons personally are not likely to think in terms of unfair discrimination against them or even be aware of being discriminatory ourselves. We simply assume that disabled people cannot do certain things and act accordingly. Or, we may not even perceive the simple barriers that disabled people face, such as the impediment of three stairs to climb before a person in a wheelchair can have access to a building.

Stereotypes and Prejudice

Every person's frame of reference includes stereotypes, oversimplified, undifferentiated pictures of groups of persons or objects. Our stereotypes are usually associated with class names such as Blacks, Mexican-Americans, women, handicapped, and adolescents. Stereotypes help us to organize a complex world but they also lead us to make unwarranted judgments about individuals. For example, a common element in stereotypes about the handicapped is that one's mind is affected by other disabilities. So, persons in wheelchairs, especially with the gross motor disabilities that frequently occur with cerebral palsy, are often erroneously judged to be mentally deficient.

These prejudgments, made without considering the extent of differences among disabled persons and handicapping conditions, are prejudices. There is much prejudice against disabled persons that is not consistent with actual evidence (i.e., that they cannot handle responsible jobs). This is the nature of prejudice—it is not based on evidence, but on the simple pictures, the stereotypes, we have in our minds. In fact, we often overlook or discount evidence contrary to our prejudices. Consequently, our attitudes often do not have a firm basis.

Attitudes

Attitudes are interrelated beliefs and feelings focused on some object or person (e.g., Blacks, women, adolescents, handicapped) or a group of actions (e.g., civil rights protests), situations (e.g., the lack of accessibility to buildings for the handicapped), or things (e.g., prosthetic devices used by disabled people). Our attitudes predispose us to act in certain ways. If we have certain beliefs and feelings about disabled people, our attitudes toward them will reflect those beliefs and feelings. We may support or oppose their desire for greater equality of opportunity, or we may avoid them or converse with them in social situations.

Attitudes, then, which are expressions of the beliefs in our frames of reference, often reflecting our stereotypes and prejudices, are extremely important because they influence so greatly how we will act toward disabled persons and on issues involving them. Often, the greatest handicap for disabled persons is the attitude of the nonhandicapped people they encounter. The resulting attitudes of the disabled toward themselves can be equally, if not more, handicapping. (For excellent discussion of attitudes and attitude change, see Bowe, 1978; and Kleinfield, 1979.)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

The four crucial concepts discussed above—frame of reference, stereotypes, prejudice, atti-

tudes—are likely to be dealt with in considerable detail in psychology classes. But many students, especially at the junior high level, will not be familiar with them. A good way to develop the concepts for handicapped education will be to:

1. Discuss the concepts (define them), in a way similar to the brief preceding discussion.
2. Have the students consider exemplars of the concepts through learning activities.
3. Apply the concepts to the handicapped and handicapism.

Frame of Reference Activities

• Use common happenings to which people react differently. Either suggest, or have students suggest, different persons and ask students how they would react and why. For example, there is a heavy snowstorm (or other weather appropriate for your geographic area): How would a farmer react in midwinter? Late spring? A person in charge of road maintenance? A student hearing that school wouldn't open that day? A teacher? A traveler? Or, use a school event, such as the announcement of tryouts for the class play (or the football team or chorus). What *might* the responses of different students tell one about their frames of reference?

• Move to situations involving the handicapped. For example, the owner of a clothing store refuses to hire handicapped sales persons in wheelchairs? Or a manufacturer of electronic equipment hires blind assemblers? What might this tell you about their frames of reference?

• Ask the students how many have known a handicapped person. What kind of disability? How well did they know the person? Then ask each to write down on a sheet of paper the words commonly used to describe handicapped persons. Pick up the lists and write two column headings on the chalkboard—*Positive, Negative*; or *Good, Bad*. Then go through the lists and ask the students which list each word should go in (in terms of whether they'd like to be referred to by the word). Be prepared to comment on any differences in words depending on the students' contact with handicapped persons and the influence of frames of reference. The lists of descriptive terms will be useful in an activity on stereotypes.

Stereotypes and Prejudice Activities

• Suggest some class names (for example, professional athletes, farmers, movie stars, minority group members, women, men, adolescents) and ask the students to describe the usual stereotypes about persons in those classes and to note exceptions they may know of. This discussion will have to be handled with care so that stereotypes are not reinforced or students in stereotyped groups (such as minority groups) are not insulted. Also, students who are members of stereotyped groups may react strongly.

• In particular, explore positive and negative adolescent stereotypes. Ask for instances of prejudice they have faced based on stereotypes of adolescents, e.g., in trying to find a job, in the ways they are treated by adults in social settings. Discuss prejudgments toward the other groups discussed above and ask students to consider the effects of the prejudices.

• Recall the descriptive words for handicapped persons listed above (perhaps they can be left on the chalkboard or dittoed for handout). What beliefs about the handicapped do they reflect? Are they stereotypes? Note that even positive beliefs can be stereotypical as indicated by terms such as "always happy."

• Have the students look at advertisements and stories in magazines and on television for stereotypes, either implicit or explicit. Are handicapped persons treated as totally helpless or as superpersons who always overcome their disabilities? Do some ads and telethons portray a too perfect image (the beautiful child on crutches) or a picture of the handicapped as dependent on charity (as some handicapped people claim)?

• The simulations, projects, use of resource persons, and analysis of media as discussed in latter parts of this reference text will also be relevant to stereotypes and prejudice. You may wish to use some of them at this point, or refer to them later as illustrative of the concepts.

• The discussion of stereotypes and prejudice provides an excellent opportunity to explore with students the power of words. Of course, words identify and communicate our stereotypes. And many of the class names that convey stereotypes are emotively loaded—they are used to

impugn group members and are resented by those persons. Sometimes they are used unwittingly by those for whom they are so common that they do not comprehend their effects on others.

Racism provides an excellent example of emotive class names. The evolution of acceptable terminology from *Negro* to *colored* to *Black* and the unacceptability of *Nigra* and *Nigger* suggest the power that words have to evoke emotions. Other ethnic groups have been the objects of loaded terms. Identifying those in class can be a helpful exercise.

• It is also helpful to remind students of the variety of expressive words used in daily discourse and how we react to them. Would they rather be called persistent or stubborn; courageous or foolhardy; hard working or a workaholic; forceful or domineering; gentle or effeminate (if male), or strong or overly aggressive (if female); tenacious or pig headed; cooperative or subservient; a strong leader or autocratic? Students will be able to think of other contrasting terms.

Many words applied to those with disabilities also have negative connotations—spastic, retard, moron, cripple, gimpy, vegetable, deaf and dumb, crazy, weirdo, sicky. Some persons are even beginning to object to use of the word *handicapped* because of the negative images associated with it. This is a period of transition as the handicapped and their supporters push for increased opportunities, and language, too, will change. Just as there was a time in the mid-1960's when one did not know whether to refer to a person as Afro-American or Black, or as Mexican-American, Chicano, or Hispanic, *handicapped* may be displaced by other terms more palatable to handicapped persons.

• Sensitivity to word use is important. Terms such as *Nigger* and *Spic* have always been derogatory and in poor taste (except, perhaps, when applied by minority group members to or among themselves). And the use of derogatory terms to describe handicapped persons is not acceptable. Students should be discouraged from using them—not by being told that the words are bad in themselves, but by being helped to appreciate how they make those toward whom they are directed feel. Explore with them what names they do not like to be called and why. Even sensitivity to certain phrases should be encouraged. Just as it is now gauche to say "Eeenie, meenie, minie, mo, catch a nigger by the toe," such phrases as "blind as a bat," "the blind leading the blind," "babbling idiot," "deaf as a doorknob" are tactless.

Student Attitude Activities

By now, your students will undoubtedly be aware of the influences of frames of reference, including stereotypes, on their attitudes. It may be well to move directly into the consideration of attitudes toward the handicapped. Two alternatives are suggested here.

• The Canadian Rehabilitation Council has suggested that questions such as the following are helpful in getting people to think about their attitudes toward the disabled (adapted from *Quest Magazine*, September 1978):

1. Do you ever feel awkward in the presence of a disabled person?
2. Do you ever act toward physically disabled persons in such a way as to indicate that you think they are also mentally disabled (for example, talking to their companion rather than directly to them)?
3. Would you like to have a disabled person for a close friend?
4. Can you list some of the problems disabled people have in using public transportation, gaining access to public buildings, and using public conveniences (such as rest rooms)?
5. Do you feel comfortable offering assistance to a disabled person?
6. If you were at a social gathering where a disabled person was present, would you avoid that person? Would you pay special attention to him or her?

The questions could be handed out and students asked to write down answers as a basis for later discussion, or the class could discuss the questions as a group. Either way, students will be given an important opportunity to begin to examine their own attitudes toward the handicapped. They may find that their reactions differ depending on the type of disability.

The visibility of disabilities—either the extensiveness of the physical effects or the extent of interference with communication—seems to be an important variable in people's attitudes. Some discussion of differing disabilities as presented in Chapter 1 may be necessary here. Encourage students to be honest in their expressions, al-

though it will not be easy. And the discussion must be handled carefully, especially if there are disabled students in class or students who have disabled family members. We are often embarrassed when our attitudes, even though common, do not seem to fit humanitarian ideals. Encouraging students to consider how their own experience or lack of experience with disabled persons has affected the beliefs in their frames of reference, and how common stereotypes influence their attitudes, will be important.

- As students answer "yes" to questions 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7 and "no" to 3 and 4, explore with them the reasons for the attitudes which many people have toward disabled people, especially those with more severe visible disabilities. The following suggestions (adapted from Sonny Kleinfield's book, *The Hidden Minority*, pp. 182–183) may be helpful. Students should be asked to judge the validity of each suggestion.

A. It is difficult not to react negatively to people who are different from us, because we feel we do not, and perhaps cannot, understand them and because they have different mannerisms (for example, the facial expressions of blind people as they carry on a conversation).
B. We do not like to be around disabled persons because they remind us that we, too, can become like them. (In that very important way handicapism is different from sexism and racism—one can quickly join the minority group.) Don't we feel some of the same fear when we visit someone in the hospital? (Incidentally, young children often believe that disabilities are contagious. Do any of your students so believe?)
C. Our culture emphasizes physical beauty, and as a result, we feel uncomfortable around those who are clearly physically or mentally flawed.
D. Other stereotypes influence our attitudes—for example, that disabilities are God's punishment or that a disabled person may be evil and dangerous. (Aren't hunchbacks, eye patches, hooks for arms, and pegs for legs used as symbols of evil in literature and on television? And aren't the symptoms of "madness" in literature and on television often similar to disabilities such as those with cerebral palsy or spina bifida?
E. Most people are unsure about how to behave around handicapped people, or even about the extent to which their disabilities are handicapping, in large part because they have not been around persons with disabilities.
F. Being around a handicapped person makes a nonhandicapped person feel guilty for being able bodied.
G. With some handicapped persons who have trouble communicating, it is difficult to tell whether the disability is mental as well as physical.
H. Disabled people make others feel uncomfortable because they don't give the impression they have high opinions of themselves. (Do posters, telethons, and legless or blind beggars seem to suggest that the disabled should be objects of pity rather than persons to be treated as normally as possible?)

Survey items presented in Chapter 10 could be administered to the class and used as a basis for discussion to get at many of the points suggested above. They ask for both attitudes and knowledge, and could be a good introduction to many simulations and projects.

If these activities and discussions make students more conscious of and thoughtful about their own frames of reference—especially their stereotypes, prejudices, and attitudes—in regard to disabled persons, an important social studies objective will have been accomplished. Any reduction in handicapism is valuable in a democratic society. And, if nonhandicapped students can relate easier to handicapped persons, that will be a positive outcome for both.

At the same time, the objectives of handicapped education in social studies are broader, and the suggestions in this chapter lay the groundwork for further learning. The next chapter will help students to explore in greater depth their understanding of and feelings toward the handicapped by helping them to better know what it is to be disabled.

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4

UNDERSTANDING THE HANDICAPPED: SIMULATION ACTIVITIES

Empathy for others is essential both as a humane trait and as a basis for adequate consideration of the demands that individuals and groups make on society. Yet, one of the most difficult tasks that social studies teachers face is helping students appreciate how other persons feel. Clearly, no one can fully understand what it means to be handicapped unless they themselves have a disability that is handicapping. Nevertheless, it is worthwhile to help nonhandicapped students understand to the extent possible what it means to be handicapped.

Students who have been temporarily disabled, such as with a broken leg or a knee operation, will recall how difficult some activities, such as climbing stairs, were. Discussion of such experiences and the person's reactions can give them and other students a glimpse of what it means to be handicapped. Students who have handicapped friends or family members will also often have worthwhile reflections to add. And handicapped persons themselves (see Chapter 6) can help nonhandicapped students to gain important insights into what it is like to be so restricted.

But temporary disabilities usually present minor inconveniences compared to the difficulties faced by many handicapped persons. And explanations by other people are not sufficiently personal. It is important to experience, as far as reasonably possible, what it is like to be handicapped. The suggested simulation activities in this chapter are intended to provide such experiences.

CAUTIONS

Similarities Not Reality

As with all simulations, we must always remember the difference between pretense and reality, and remind students of that difference. Simulations can impress students with the difficulties faced by the disabled; but, as with temporary disabilities such as broken bones, they are limited. It will still be difficult to comprehend fully the enormity of the obstacles faced and the depth of feelings generated for the permanently disabled.

At the same time, simulations and role playing can have powerful effects. Not only do the sensitivities of disabled persons (for example, handicapped students in mainstreamed classrooms) have to be taken into account, but the well being of the participating students as well. A few simulations have some potential for physical harm—for example, walking around blindfolded or with one's hearing impaired, or being in a wheelchair when not used to it. These activities must be carefully prepared for and supervised.

Moreover, there is possibility of emotional harm if students become overly engrossed in the negative effects of disabilities and fearful of their own futures. That is one reason that many of the projects and the use of resource people suggested in Chapters 5 and 6 are so important. They will make students aware of human strength in meeting adversity and of the human qualities and the positive attitudes toward life preserved by those who have had to face severe disabilities, and of the desire of most handicapped to be treated like other persons—disabled, but with basically the same desires and the same capacities to be productive and to enjoy life. Perhaps some students, too, will get a sense of the tremendous satisfactions that many professionals (from special education teachers to psychologists to physical and speech therapists), nonprofessionals (who help the handicapped to find jobs and otherwise live lives that are as normal as possible), employers of the handicapped, and

just plain friends get from their associations with handicapped persons.

Avoiding Dichotomies

Simulations should be approached with students in ways to avoid either-or thinking—that one is handicapped or not. Disabilities vary in severity as do their handicapping effects. And, in fact, many people who live perfectly normal lives are in some way limited or disabled. Some are tone deaf, and others are color blind. Some do not think as quickly as others. Some have poorer memories. Some have less physical strength or limb mobility. Some find speech more difficult. Some have difficulty with spatial relations. It is important to remind students of these ranges of abilities, particularly with nonphysical, hard to view disabilities.

Prior to use of the simulation activities, students should be engaged in some classroom activities that demonstrate that we all differ in our abilities. Following are some sample activities to indicate variability:

1. Have a music teacher help check for differences among students in tone discrimination.
2. Many general psychology books, or the school nurse, will have color blindness tests that students can use to test themselves.
3. Skills tests such as are used in physical education classes can be administered to identify variability in strength and coordination.
4. Threading a needle will indicate eye-hand coordination differences.
5. Psychology books often have "hidden figure" tests in which students are to pick a figure out from a number of lines.
6. Skill at saying tongue twisters could be checked.
7. A bell, switch, and battery hooked in series can be used to test reflexes. Have enough for several students. Instruct the students that when you flash a light (e.g., a flashlight), they are to try to be first to ring the bell.

Rarely will any one class member do well on all of such a variety of tests. This may make it easier to understand that disabilities are usually specific, not total. So a person who is mentally retarded in terms of usual school activities may have a special talent for making mechanical repairs, or a patience that is a valuable asset for some jobs.

Such activities must, of course, be used with assiduous concern for the privacy of students. For example, revealing individual IQ scores to indicate a range of abilities would be an unwarranted invasion of privacy.

Physical or Mental Disabilities

Note, too, that it is much more difficult to simulate mental disabilities than physical ones. And some physical disabilities are more readily experienced than others. Blindness may be the easiest disability to simulate, as students only have to close their eyes to begin to experience what it is like. Some mental disabilities—for example, some aspects of mental retardation, learning disabilities, and especially, emotional disturbance—are almost impossible to simulate.

The list of simulations starts purposely with blindness and moves toward less readily simulated disabilities. This progression will, we think, often be a good teaching strategy. Students will begin with a concrete sense of disability that may help them to appreciate the effects of the less readily demonstrable handicaps. Also, the simulations for each disability are listed in a suggested order of use to obtain maximum reality.

CREATING SIMULATIONS

The following list of simulations is suggestive. You will think of others. Perhaps even more importantly, you can set your students to devising others, which is an excellent learning experience in itself. We have included brief descriptions of handicapping conditions with the suggested activities to help you set the context for simulations and for student efforts to engage their imaginations in coming up with other activities.

We urge that simulations be followed by discussions. Ask students questions such as the following:

1. About the simulation experience:
   - How realistic was it?
   - What were their feelings (and the feelings of those who were helpers in some activities)?
   - How did it feel to be relieved of the disability (e.g., to take the blindfold off or leave the wheelchair)?
2. About the handicapping effects of the disability:

- In what situations would it be handicapping? Socially? Educationally? Career wise? In raising a family?
- What would make it handicapping? The attitudes of other people? Their own attitudes? The physical environment?

3. About their reactions to the disability:
   - How would they feel being permanently faced with the disability? Would it be embarrassing to them to be so disabled? When? With their family? Their friends? Dating? At school? Eating out? Shopping for clothes?

The simulations and the discussions that follow will be worthwhile in themselves. They will also set the stage for other classroom activities and independent assignments. The projects suggested in the next chapter will be more meaningful to students who have a sense of disablement. They will also be able to interact more knowledgeably with resource persons (Ch. 6). And they will bring a more adequate affective base to their study of the handicapped from social studies course perspectives and to their consideration of social issues. Conversely, it is important that, to the extent possible, simulation activities and the discussions of them be followed by other curricular activities such as mentioned above and discussed in the following chapters. That sort of integration in the curriculum will help students to see the importance of the simulations, that they are more than games, and to appreciate the broad implications of disabilities for individuals and society.

SIMULATION ACTIVITIES

You will likely not want to use all of the many simulations suggested. We do suggest that you try the activities yourself, if possible, before using them in class.

Also, some of the suggestions require materials. You might begin to acquire, perhaps in cooperation with other teachers, a collection of materials to be used. (The Kids Come in Special Flavors Company has an inexpensive classroom kit that you may find helpful.) Some of the equipment, such as wheelchairs and prosthetic devices, is expensive. Such items can often be borrowed from local businesses that sell or rent them or from your school district's special education office, if there is one. The Easter Seal Society may also help to obtain items.

With all of the simulations, tact will be essential so that students treat the activities seriously and without discourtesy toward others who may be disabled or have disabled family members or friends.

Visual Impairments

Visual loss may range from being *totally blind* (cannot tell light from darkness) to *legal* blindness (less than 20/200 vision in the better eye with corrective lenses), to being *partially sighted* (20/70 to 20/200, corrected with lenses). Some persons are born with visual impairments, others acquire them from disease, injury, or aging. Persons with other disabilities—e.g., mental retardation, cerebral palsy—may have visual impairment.

1. Have students listen to television with the picture turned off to see how much sense they can make of the programs. Does the amount of understanding differ among types of programs?
2. Have students watch a movie that is out of focus. Discuss the effect on learning.
3. Blindfold students (with patches of dark cloth or gauze over each eye fastened by a wrap around the head) and have them:
   a. Try to feed themselves.
   b. Try to identify common objects by touch only.
   c. Try to walk about in the room using a "map" (verbal description) after furniture has been rearranged.
   d. Walk about with a "helper" and do normal things such as use the bathroom, eat in the lunchroom, use an elevator (how to identify up and down buttons and floor buttons). *Note*: The helper *must be* conscientious and stay with the blindfolded person in a position to assist at all times, even when there is clear understanding that the blindfolded person will try something alone.
   e. Try to walk about using a white cane (or reasonable facsimile) to detect steps, walls, curbs, and other obstacles.
4. Partial visual impairment can be approximated by putting a piece of gauze over the eye holes in a mask, or by soaping up a cheap pair of clear glasses. Or, approximate different degrees of visual impairment by putting layers of Saran wrap or other plastic material over the eyeholes in masks. Have the

students try to study and do other normal classroom activities. In particular, have them observe the importance of print size.

5. Obtain, from your local or state association for the blind or your regional deaf blind center, cards with the alphabet printed in Braille and borrow or purchase Braille paper, slates, and styluses for writing in Braille (you can have students use sturdy paper and a ball point pen with a felt pad for backing).
   a. Have students punch Braille (their names, a simple slogan or poem), with and without blindfolds.
   b. Have students try to translate longer items written in Braille with their eyes closed.
   c. Have students try to read part of a book in Braille (blindfolded or with their eyes shut so that they must rely on tactile sensations).
   d. You may be able to borrow a Brailler (Braille typewriter) from the local association for the blind, and have students use it.
6. Obtain (from the local association for the blind) Braille watches, clothing tags, and games designed for the blind (e.g., checkers, chess, Scrabble) and have students use them blindfolded.
7. Obtain letter writing guides from the source of the Braille equipment and samples and have students try to use them blindfolded.

Hearing Impairments

Hearing loss may range from *profound deafness* (loss of 90 or more decibels in the better ear so that even amplified speech cannot be understood), including total deafness, to *severe hard of hearing* (75 decibels loss), to *moderately severe* (55 decibels loss) to *moderate hard of hearing* (40 decibels loss), to *mild hard of hearing* (25 decibels), to slight hard of hearing 10–25 decibels loss).

Profound hearing loss interferes with speech. Slight hearing loss is often undetected, but contributes to communication problems. Children may be born with hearing loss, often due to German measles or Rubella during pregnancy. Injury from excessive noise is a common cause among older individuals.

1. Use the free record "Getting Through" (Zenith Radio Corp., 6501 West Grand Ave., Chicago IL 50535). On band 3, five sentences are repeated under different hearing conditions. Band 4 has an "unfair hearing test." Words are repeated as they would sound to a hard of hearing person, a person with a hearing aid, and a person with normal hearing. Use it as a spelling test. You may want to tape record the band so that you can allow adequate time between words. Have students indicate when they can begin to hear the words, and how they would feel taking a spelling test under the different conditions.
2. Have students watch television with the sound off and indicate how much they can understand. Does the amount of comprehension differ with different types of programs?
3. Have students watch programs (often on Public Television) with captions and note whether the written words convey the full meaning of the sound.
4. Obtain a portable auditory training unit and have students wear it in class to get an idea of the extent to which hearing aids amplify background noises (e.g., scraping chairs) to a distracting level.
5. Have students place swimming ear plugs or wads of cotton in their ears and try to follow the day's lesson and participate in discussions. Have them note the extent to which their knowledge of what is happening around them depends on hearing.
6. Ask for volunteers to wear ear plugs for a longer period (e.g., 3 hours) and report back to the class.
7. Show a short movie with the sound off. Hand out a quiz with some questions that can be

answered only if the sound has been heard and some that can be answered without the sound. Show the movie a second time and discuss the differences in understanding.

8. Have the school audiologist or speech-language pathologist (if there is one) come to class and explain decibels and discuss hearing loss, demonstrating with an audiogram the different hearing levels of the students. Care with privacy is essenial here. Students should have the clear option of participating or not. Hearing aids could be demonstrated too.
9. Have students obtain ear molds and hearing aids and go shopping wearing the aids, and report back to the class on people's reactions.
10. Have students try to read lips with their hands over their ears. or with plugs or cotton in their ears, as you read the class roll (not in the usual order) in a low voice to see if they can identify their own names. (Or, mouth the names without any impediment to the students' hearing.)
11. Tell the students that you will write a paragraph on the board and that they are to copy it; as you write, erase words as they look down to write. Explain that this is similar to the problems hearing impaired people face in lipreading if they look away or the talker turns away.
12. To demonstrate the difficulties in reading lips, say sentences slowly but occasionally turn so the students cannot see your lips. Or ask them to write down what you are saying (their eyes will have to shift to the paper, and they will miss words).
13. Have students learn the manual alphabet and/or sign laguage. (Materials can be obtained from Gallaudet College, your regional deaf-blind center, or a local bookstore.) Have them use the manual alphabet and/or signing for simple messages. Compare the speed and expressiveness with oral speech.

Physical Motor Impairments

Several disabilities are in this category. They range from *speech impairments*, such as stuttering or inability to articulate at all, to *loss of limbs* or *loss of their use*. Included are *amputees* and those with *spinal damage* from accidents, as well as those who are motor impaired from *cerebral palsy* (damage to the motor area of the brain, often at birth), *stroke* (damage to the brain from ruptured blood vessels), *muscular dystrophy* (a still not understood weakening of voluntary muscle functions), and *spina bifida* (a birth defect in which the spinal canal is incompletely formed).

Cerebral palsy can affect large muscle activity (e.g., walking, running, balancing) and small muscle (e.g., writing, talking) activity. Effects include difficulty in making accurate movements, uncontrolled movements, poor body balance, and tremors or rigidity. Some with cerebral palsy will be in wheelchairs. In over half, mental functions will not be impaired. *Spina bifida* may have such effects as paralysis or weakness, lack of urinary control, hydrocephalus (enlarged head due to excessive fluid), and mental retardation. *Paraplegia* is motor and sensory paralysis of the lower half of the body. *Quadriplegia* is paralysis from the neck down.

1. Speech impairments are difficult to simulate. The following can give students some idea of the difficulties encountered:
   a. Have students purposely stutter during a discussion (must be handled with tact as the stutterer is still the object of much thoughtless humor in our society).
   b. Have students stutter while making a telephone call (e.g., to an airlines reservations desk to inquire about flights) and/or while going into a store to make a purchase, and report to the class on the experience.
   c. Have students try to talk during discussions with something in their mouths, such as dental cotton, to interfere with tongue movement.
   d. Have students use an artificial larynx (laryngectomy) to communicate outside of the classroom. Ask them to report back on facial and other nonverbal reactions.
   e. During a discussion, tell some students that they must pause for a count of three before talking after being recognized and then must pause between each word. This impairment sometimes occurs with cerebral palsy.
   f. During a discussion, tell some students that they must not talk, but only communicate by other means (writing on the blackboard, signing).
   g. Obtain a communication board such as is often used by those with cerebral palsy.

Restrict students to communicating only with the board for an hour. Allow some to point to the board with a finger or a pencil, have some hold the pencil with pliers (to suggest lack of fine motor control), restrict others to pointing with a pencil or other pointer held in their mouth or attached to their head with a band.

2. Even for otherwise mobile persons, there are motor impairments that can be handicapping:
   a. Difficulty with balance—have students spin around until they are dizzy and then try to walk a balance beam or a straight line drawn on the floor with chalk.
   b. Those with cerebral palsy often have difficulty with neck muscles (as with other muscles, they may be rigid, or so loose as to allow the head to flop). First, have students lie down and try to get up without using their heads. Then have them allow their heads to drop during discussion and note how it interferes with paying attention and listening.
   c. Have students carry a heavy object between the thumb and finger of their writing hand for several minutes, then try to write. Stiffness of muscles will make coordination difficult, as might be the case with cerebral palsy.
   d. Have students eat using pliers to hold their fork, or write holding a pencil with pliers.
   e. On the hand not commonly used, tape the students' fingers together. Then have them try to eat with that hand, using a fork or spoon and picking up nuts and raisins.
   f. For gross muscle activity, tie a rope between the students' ankles and have them walk, keeping the rope taut.
3. Crutches, braces, and prostheses, while important aids, have limitations.
   a. Have students use crutches to get around school for a day.
   b. Fasten a roll of corrugated paper, a newspaper, or tie sticks on each side of the leg so that the knee will not bend. Have students move around school for a day. Do both legs and have them use crutches.
   c. Have a prosthesis salesperson bring artificial limbs to class and demonstrate them.
   d. Weigh artificial arms and tie sandbags of equivalent weight to students' wrists to give them some idea of how tiring these may be (especially for younger persons).
4. Those with cerebral palsy, spina bifida, muscular dystrophy, or loss of limb use through amputation or neurological damage rely on a variety of aids for mobility.
   a. Have walkers available for students to use in moving around the room or hallways.
   b. Obtain a crawler and have students maneuver it in the classroom. An important point is that we use bicycles for fun and to expedite getting around. Mobility aids are, however, essential to many disabled persons. They do not make mobility easier in many cases, they make it possible. And, they can be difficult to use.
   c. Because wheelchairs are such a fundamental mode, students should experience their use. Have students spend considerable time in a wheelchair trying to do such things as drink from a fountain, use the restroom (especially if not adapted for the disabled), and use a public telephone.
   d. Have a student go into a store in a wheelchair to buy clothes alone and with a companion and report back to the class on the experience.
   e. After they have been in a wheelchair, ask students questions such as: How did it feel to be so much shorter than others? To be unable to make eye contact easily? To have others looking down at you? If you had to ask for help, how did that feel?
   f. Suggest that at home the students sit on a chair about wheelchair height and try to do things such as turn on stove burners, use the kitchen sink, reach dishes in the cupboards, and adjust the thermostat.
   g. Those with disorders such as cerebral palsy and spina bifida often have multiple disabilities. Combine other simulations with wheelchair use, e.g., sight limitations, fingers taped together, speech limitations, upper arms bound.
   h. Have other students be over solicitous of the students in wheelchairs—offer assistance whenever they try to do something, anticipate needs, bring things so that they do not have to move—and discuss the resulting feelings on the part of the person in the wheelchair.
5. The effects on the immobility of quadriplegics from the neck down and of quadriamputees are difficult to simulate:
   a. Wrap students up tightly in blankets so that they cannot use their arms and legs, and have them try to turn over.

b. Have students fed by someone else at lunch.
c. Have students lie down (e.g., on a table) and have a helper do everything for them for an hour or more. Have the helper try to put a jacket on with the students' arm muscles loose. Consider what it would be like to have to rely on attendants for everything—to be fed, dressed, bathed, one's bodily functions (changing drainage bags). Consider why it is important to be careful in selecting attendants.

Dwarfism

This condition is often not included in discussions of disabilities, but it can be handicapping and the object of handicapism. Techically, anyone 4 feet, 10 inches or shorter is a dwarf. In *achondroplastic dwarfism*, bone disorder results in a large, round head, powerful torso, and short limbs. *Pituitary dwarfs*, often called midgets, are perfectly proportioned. Causes include defective genes, hormonal failure, bone diseases, and inadequate nutrition.

1. Have students try to do a number of things while on their knees—use a public telephone, step as high as the first step on a bus, check the thermostat, reach for items in cupboards.

Mental Retardation

Intellectual development occurs at less than average rate, resulting in difficulty in performing tasks expected at the person's age level. Often the retarded have multiple disabilities—speech and visual impairment, motor-muscular impairment—as well as difficulty with intellectual tasks that require higher order cognitive abilities, such as use of complex language or following complex directions. Mental retardation is usually defined in IQ levels: IQ of 50–70, mildly or educable retarded (about 80–90% of retarded persons); IQ of 35–50, moderately retarded; IQ under 35, severely and profoundly retarded.

Functional definitions are used too—*mildly retarded* persons are able to learn to take care of themselves, earn a living, and live independently; *moderately retarded* persons can care for themselves and perform household tasks, and work in a sheltered workshop; *severely retarded* persons can feed and dress themselves and carry out simple requests; *profoundly retarded* persons are completely dependent on others for their care, even to the point of being bedridden.

Causes are genetic, e.g., Down's Syndrome (mongolism, accounts for about one fourth of mental retardation), prenatal brain damage from toxic agents or infections, brain damage from injuries, infections, toxic agents, metabolism or nutrition disorders. Mental retardation *may* accompany other disabilities such as cerebral palsy and spina bifida.

1. Ask students to write a theme or a letter using only two syllable words. This illustrates a type of limitation that mentally retarded persons often face.
2. Give students a reading assignment with many technical words they won't understand and then quiz them on it. (Illustrates the difficult learning situations that retarded persons often face.)
3. Post signs in a foreign language (e.g., Russian or Chinese) that students will not be able to read and tell them they have to put their homework, their tests, and so on under the correct signs. (Similar to the problem many retarded persons face in reading street and other signs.)
4. Give students a math assignment beyond their level of coursework. Explain that counting change may be an equivalent challenge for mentally retarded persons.
5. Tell students that you are going to give them directions for a writing assignment, then give them, rather rapidly, a series of 10 to 15 directions (such things as where to put their name and the date on the page(s), how many pages the assignment is to be, the major sections of the paper, what sources to check). When they ask for clarifications, explain this is an example of information overload, and a mentally retarded person may experience it with only two or three directions or requests.
6. Have your students write their names as neatly as they can. Then have them try to write their names as neatly again while rotating their right foot in a clockwise direction on the floor (or left foot, if left-handed, in a counter clockwise direction). Mentally retarded persons experience similar coordination problems.
7. Use activities from the visual impairment (A. 2,4) and speech impairment (C.1) sections to illustrate that mentally retarded people often have speech and hearing impairments.

8. Have students put on mittens or put heavy socks over their hands and then try to put on a shirt and button it or pick up coins out of a bag. Mentally retarded persons often have difficulty with tactile discrimination as well as with muscular coordination.
9. To illustrate gross motor difficulties (relevant, for example, to the achievements of the mentally retarded in Special Olympics), tie a cord between the students' ankles, so that their feet are 12 to 16 inches apart, and ask them to walk, keeping the cord taut. Then tie a cord around their upper arms and torso so that their arms are close to their bodies from the elbows up. Ask them to try to walk rapidly, run, sit on the floor. *Note*: Emphasize that some persons (e.g., those with cerebral palsy) may have gross or fine motor difficulties but not be retarded mentally. It is discouraging to be mentally bright, but misjudged as deficient because damage to the motor area of your brain affects your speech or muscular coordination.
10. Have students do a number of simulations at once (e.g., visual impairment with gross motor impairment; or visual impairment with a technical reading assignment) to illustrate that the mentally retarded often have multiple handicaps.

Learning Disabilities

This catchall term refers to disorders other than visual, hearing, or motor-physical impairments, emotional disturbance, and mental retardation that interfere with learning, especially in understanding and using language. Included are difficulties in visual discrimination (e.g., confusing *b* and *d*, *p* and *q*, *saw* and *was*), visual memory (e.g., not remembering written words), auditory discrimination (e.g., not being able to hear the difference among *but, bat, bet, bit*), eye-hand coordination, spatial orientation (e.g., confusing up and down, left and right), figure ground relationships (e.g., difficulty in picking out letters in words and words in sentences); hyperactivity (short attention span, not being able to block out stimuli).

Learning disabilities are included in the legal definition of the handicapped in P.L. 94–142 (which limited schools to placing no more than 2% of students in this population). Learning disabilities often create on the job problems. They come from many causes, most not well understood.

1. Use the name writing activity in E.6 above.
2. Photocopy reading material for class, moving it slightly so that the letters are fuzzy.
3. Give a math assignment with special rules— + means subtract and − means add, subtract top number from the bottom, divide the number outside the division symbol by the number inside. First, let the students examine a worked problem, such as:

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ +5 \\ \hline X \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} X \\ -1 \\ \hline Y \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 2 \\ \hline 8 / Y \end{array}$$

(Solution, not to be given to the students yet, X=3, Y=4.) Then give the following problem and ask the students to solve it:

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ -4 \\ \hline X \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} X \\ +12 \\ \hline Y \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} ? \\ \hline Y / 2 \end{array}$$

Solution: X=8, Y=4, ?=2

Explain the rules and the solution. Note that to some persons, our regular math rules are as difficult because of difficulty with spatial orientations and symbol substitutions.

4. Give students sentences to be read aloud as a student with visual discrimination difficulties might see them. For example (from Cashdollar & Martin, 1978):

> ehT qaimtimg also qroved that, sa well sa deing a great humter, Cro-Wagmom Nam saw a consiberadle artist.

Have them pick out the reversals and substitutions and try to write the correct sentence. Give the correct sentences, as necessary. For example:

The painting also proved that, as well as being a great hunter, Cro-Magnon Man was a considerable artist.

Emotional Disturbance

Disabilities in this category include extreme aggressiveness and destructiveness, extreme fears, depression, withdrawal, and anxiety; apparent lack of contact with reality, as in schizophrenia, psychosis, and autism; inability to relate to oth-

ers, rigid patterns of behavior, dysfunctional fetishes. Definitions are not always clear, especially to laypersons, and the point at which thought or behavior becomes so aberrant as to be labeled *disturbed* is often not easily determined. Nor are the causes well understood.

1. Simulations are difficult with emotional disturbances, perhaps because emotional traits are continuous and we each have some elements of emotional disturbance in our makeup. To probe these elements through simulations and role play can easily encroach on individual privacy. It would be desirable to have students learn about mental disorders in a psychology course, or, if you as a teacher feel qualified, through an extensive unit of work.

All Disabilities

These simulations show how to relate to the disabled and handicapped.

1. After doing several of the simulation activities above, talking with resource people (Ch. 6), and perhaps doing some projects (Ch. 5), role playing about a major source of discomfort for the nonhandicapped—how to relate to handicapped persons—could be helpful to students. Situations such as the following can be used. Involve the students in writing role descriptions for the characters and in devising other situations:
   a. A receptionist in an attorneys' office is approached by a person with halting speech and harsh, pitchless voice asking about making an appointment with an attorney. The receptionist wonders if the person is deaf.
   b. A clerk is working in a clothing store when a person in a motorized wheelchair, lacking control of his or her arms and legs, comes in to buy a shirt. The customer uses a communication board as speech is difficult.
   c. A person with paralyzed legs enters a store in his or her wheelchair, accompanied by a friend, to purchase a shirt. The clerk seems to assume the person in the wheelchair is mentally incompetent and talks only to the friend (incidentally, a common occurrence).
   d. A teenager goes to camp or college. Her or his roommate is blind and does not have a guide dog. The cafeteria is down a flight of stairs. The dinner bell rings. Or, they sit down to dinner together. (The American Foundation for the Blind has available a film, "What Do You Do When You See a Blind Person," which is a humorous treatment of common errors the sighted make in interacting with blind people. Also, see the list of courtesies in *Kids Come in Special Flavors*, 1973, p. 50.)
   e. A new teacher is in a wheelchair because of amputated legs. It's the first day of school. Two students walk into the room and stop, with surprised looks on their faces.
   f. A mentally retarded person wants to try out for the basketball team. The coach must tell him or her that he or she lacks the necessary coordination.

Hopefully, many of these suggested activities will be useful in your classes, as well as stimulate you and your students to come up with others. Hopefully, too, they will create the empathy and interest that will lead into projects, such as suggested in the following chapter, which will provide greater depth of knowledge about handicaps.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following publications were helpful sources of simulations:

Barnes, E., Berrigan, C., & Biklen, D. *What's the difference? Teaching positive attitudes toward people with disabilities*. Syracuse NY: Human Policy Press, 1978.

Bookbinder, S. R. *Mainstreaming: What every child needs to know about disabilities*. Providence RI: Rhode Island Easter Seal Society, 1978.

Cashdollar, P., & Martin, J. *Kids come in special flavors: Understanding handicaps*. Dayton OH: The Kids Come in Special Flavors Co., 1978.

See the Appendix for the addresses of the following organizations mentioned in this chapter: The Kids Come in Special Flavors Co.; Gallaudet College; Deaf-Blind Regional Centers.

Also see:

Ross, R. K. *Handicapped people in society: Ideas and activities for teachers*. Morristown NJ: Silver Burdett, 1981.

5
UNDERSTANDING THE HANDICAPPED: STUDENT PROJECTS

Projects are useful in social studies to involve students in the collection, evaluation, and organization of information. Projects also can engage students in activities that, as with simulations, will lead them to consider the attitudes and feelings of others. In this chapter, a number of projects are suggested to increase students' knowledge of disabling conditions and to help them to understand what it is like to live with a handicap. These projects were designed so that they can be completed by students using resources generally available in schools.

The projects suggested here are general in nature. That is, they are appropriate for any social studies course in which an objective is to increase students' sensitivity and knowledge in regard to disabled persons. The chapters on individual social studies courses (Ch. 8) and on societal issues (Ch. 9) contain ideas for course specific projects—for example, in economics, doing a cost-benefit analysis of education for mentally retarded persons; in psychology, a study of prejudice toward the disabled; in anthropology, an investigation of the influence of social norms on whether a disability is a handicap; in sociology, a study of social interaction between disabled and nondisabled persons; in American history, writing a history of the handicapped rights movement; in world history, tracing the social position of a disabled group, such as dwarfs, in different historical periods; in government, analyzing the political pressures exerted during the 4 year delay in preparation of the regulations to implement the Rehabilitation Act of 1973; in issues courses, the development of a position paper on an issue such as whether privately owned housing should be built to accommodate physically disabled persons.

The projects described are clearly only a sampling of those that students could use to investigate handicapism. You and your students will want to supplement the list.

1. FINDING OUT ABOUT DISABILITIES

Purpose: To increase students' knowledge of disabilities.

Description: Assign students disabilities from the following list and request that each student complete a report on a disability using a format similar to the Worksheet below. Be certain to instruct students not to simply copy information verbatim from their sources.

Sources of Information: Encyclopedias, psychology and special education textbooks.

Disabilities

aphasia, arthritis, asthma, autism, brain damage, cardio-pulmonary defects, cerebral palsy, cleft palate, cystic fibrosis, Down's syndrome, dwarfism, emotional disturbance, epilepsy, hearing impairments, hemophilia, laryngectomy, learning disabilities, limb deformities or absence, mental retardation, multiple sclerosis, muscular dystrophy, paraplegia, quadriplegia, sickle cell anemia, stuttering, visual impairments

Worksheet

Name: What is the name commonly given to this disability? Is it known by other names?
Description of the Disability: Is it a physical or mental impairment? Is more than one kind of impairment involved? What part of the body suffers the greatest disability? Are other parts of the

body affected also? To what degree? If behavioral changes result, what are they?

Incidence: What is the incidence of the disability per 1,000 persons? What percentage of the population of the United States suffers from this disability? Approximately how many persons with this disability are there in the United States?

Cause: Is the disability usually caused by genetic, prenatal, or natal factors? Does it result from accident or disease after birth?

Protheses and Special Appliances: Is a prosthesis required? Are special appliances needed for persons with this disability to move about? Are special appliances needed to protect the person's limbs or head? Are glasses, hearing aids, or other sensory aid devices required? What recent advances have there been in related prostheses, devices, and appliances?

Handicapping Problems: What particular problems might persons with this disability have, for example, in typical home, school, community, and employment settings? Consider the physical and social aspects of the settings.

Other Information: Is the disability more prevalent in males or females? Does the disability occur more frequently in a particular ethnic or economic group?

References: What sources were used to complete the Worksheet?

2. LIVING WITH A HANDICAP: A DAY IN THE LIFE OF A HANDICAPPED PERSON

Purpose: To develop student empathy for the handicapped by having students consider some of the difficulties that disabled persons face daily.

Description: Give students brief profiles of disabled teenagers, or have them develop profiles from the information gathered during Project 1. Examples are given below. Working either individually or in groups, have the students describe the difficulties presented by each of the following activities for the individuals portrayed in their profiles. Special appliances or equipment that would assist the disabled person should be identified.

1. *At home—Morning activities:* (a) Using the toilet; (b) bathing; (c) dressing, including selecting clothes; (d) eating breakfast.
2. *Traveling to and from school:* (a) Walking; (b) using public transportation; (c) getting from house to vehicle and from vehicle to school.
3. *At school:* (a) Participating in various classes (English; social studies; home economics or industrial arts; business education; science; mathematics; physical education; art and music); (b) moving from class to class, eating lunch in the school cafeteria, and using the washrooms.
4. *At home—Evening activities:* (a) Completing homework assignments; (b) participating in recreational activities; (c) helping with chores; (d) preparing for bed.

Example Profiles

Elizabeth

Elizabeth is 17 years old. She has been completely blind since birth, when as a premature infant she was given an excessive concentration of oxygen. Elizabeth is of average intelligence,

reads Braille easily and quickly, and uses a Brailler proficiently in the classroom. She has a fine sense of humor and an outgoing personality. She is well liked by her classmates. Elizabeth has not yet decided what she will do when she graduates from high school next year. However, she does plan to continue her education.

John

John suffers from muscular dystrophy and has been confined to a wheelchair for the past 3 of his 16 years. Though he has movement in his arms and shoulders, his doctor has suggested that he will become totally disabled within the next several years. John tires easily. Although he progressed easily through the primary and intermediate grades, John now finds learning to be difficult, but he is not mentally handicapped. He is reluctant to talk about his future.

Ralph

Ralph is an 18 year old epileptic youth. He suffers from *grand mal* seizures, usually experiencing between 12 and 15 a year. During a seizure, he loses consciousness, falls to the floor or ground, and while his arms thrash about he perspires heavily, loses control of his bladder and bowels, foams at the mouth, and bites his tongue and lips. Because the threat of a seizure is always with him, Ralph is careful not to become overly tired or emotionally upset, and he avoids places with bright lights and loud music. He is highly intelligent and usually stands first in the class on social studies, science, and mathematics tests. When he graduates from high school this year, he plans to enter the state university to prepare for a career as a clinical psychologist.

3. LIVING WITH A HANDICAP: DATING

Purpose: To develop student empathy for the handicapped by having students reflect on questions pertaining to the social life of disabled persons.

Description: Assign each student or group of students a profile of a disabled person (developed for Project 2) and ask them to plan a date for this person with a nonhandicapped partner. The date is to take place on Saturday in the student's community, and only facilities available in the community can be considered. The following are some problems that should be considered.

1. What will the couple do on their date? Will they go to the movies? To the theater? To a concert? To a dance? To a private party? To the park? To a restaurant? What are some questions that should be answered before the decision to go to any of these is made?
2. How will the couple get to and from where they are going?
   (a) Will a private car be used?
   (b) What forms of public transportation are available, and will the disabled person's condition interfere with the use of any of them?
   (c) If public transportation is used, will the couple have any walking to do? If so, will that present problems?
   (d) Must they return home by a certain time if public transportation is used?
   (e) Will taxis be used? If so, how expensive will that be?
3. Will the disabled person require assistance at any time during the evening? If so, who will provide it?
4. Suppose that you were going on a similar date. How would the cost of your date compare with the cost of the preceding date? What problems would concern the disabled person prior to his or her date that you would not have to consider?

4. LIVING WITH A HANDICAP: FEELINGS

Purpose: To develop student empathy for the handicapped by helping students understand that disabled persons are capable of experiencing the whole range of human emotion.

Description: Give each student or group of students a profile of a disabled person (from Project 2) and request that they use the description to devlop vignettes describing events that might have been experienced by this person due to his or her disability, such as the following: (a) an embarrassing moment; (b) a frustrating moment; (c) an angry occurrence; (d) a happy occasion; (e) a funny situation; (f) a lonely situation; (g) a frightening situation; (h) a satisfying occasion. When completed, the vignettes may be read to the class or used as a basis for role playing activities.

5. ATTRIBUTES OF HANDICAPPED PERSONS

Purpose: To help students understand that disabled persons share most personal qualities with normal persons.

Description: Using profiles of disabled persons (Project 2), have students note on a set of personal attributes, such as the one below, those attributes not likely to be adversely affected by the persons' disabling conditions. The sheet below has been completed for Elizabeth (a) and John (b), whose profiles were presented as examples for Project 2.

Personal Attributes	*Not Likely To Be Affected*
a. Grooming, personal appearance	a, b
b. Physical vigor	a
c. Health	a
d. Sense of humor	a, b
e. Intellectual alertness	a, b
f. Expression of ideas	a, b
g. Conversational skill	a, b
h. Qualities of leadership	a, b
i. Study habits	a, b
j. Vocabulary	a, b
k. Enunciation, articulation	a, b
l. Variety of interests	a, b
m. Ability to listen to others	a, b
n. Friendliness	a, b
o. Manners	a, b
p. Sincerity, honesty	a, b
q. Cheerfulness, optimistic	a, b
r. Loyalty	a, b
s. Cooperation, helpfulness	a, b
t. Integrity	a, b
u. Unselfishness, generosity	a, b
v. Motivation, drive	a, b
w. Realistic attitude, practical	a, b
x. Dependability, reliability	a, b
y. Willingness to accept criticism	a, b
z. Understanding for others	a, b

This project could be done as a class activity. If done by students individually or in small groups, followup discussion should center on the number of attributes not necessarily affected and the specific relationship of individual disabilities to those attributes affected.

6. EMPLOYMENT FOR THE HANDICAPPED

Purpose: To increase students' knowledge of the employment opportunities for disabled persons.

Description: The following are suggestions for investigating jobs for the handicapped.

a. *Description: The Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (Washington: US Department of Labor, 1977) describes jobs in the United States categorized according to major occupations. *The Supplement: Physical Demands Data* (Washington: US Department of Labor, 1980) provides lists of the physical traits necessary to do each job. Together, these publications can be used to identify employment possibilities for disabled persons. Using the reports for Project 1 and/or the profiles for Project 2, have students identify occupations that are suitable for persons with particular disabilities.
b. Have students search the employment column in the classified section of the local newspaper and, using the reports completed for Project 1 as a guide, categorize the advertised jobs according to their suitability for persons with specific disabilities. Have them first consider the tasks for the job and then the setting in which the job is likely performed. What modifications of facilities or special equipment might be needed?
c. Students might write to the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped (see Appendix) for *Hiring the Handicapped: Facts and Myths*. Also, they might obtain items in the *Accessibility* list in the Appendix for assistance in determining and considering the modifications that might be made to increase job opportunities for the disabled.

7. PREPARING A COMMUNITY DIRECTORY OF SOCIAL, CULTURAL, AND RECREATIONAL FACILITIES FOR THE DISABLED

Purpose: To increase students' awareness of opportunities for the disabled through the development of a directory of community businesses, public facilities, and private organizations that encourage disabled persons to use their facilities or include the disabled in their membership rolls.

Description: Students could complete this project in school by telephoning businesses, community centers, and recreational facilities listed in the Yellow Pages, or they could actually visit the facilities and conduct on the spot surveys. The following are some examples of places that might be included: department stores, restaurants, theaters, concert halls, sports stadiums and arenas, community centers, service clubs (e.g., Lions, Rotary, Kiwanis), lodges (e.g., Ea-

gles, Elks, Moose, IOF, Masons), sailing clubs, archery and shooting clubs, riding clubs, hunting and fishing clubs, flying clubs, golf courses, bridge and card clubs, bowling alleys, billiard parlors, drama groups, painting and drawing clubs, musical groups, craft and collecting clubs, and gardening clubs.

Some questions that students might ask during their surveys are: (a) Are disabled persons welcome? (b) Are the facilities accessible to the disabled? (c) Is special equipment available as needed to accommodate disabled persons (e.g., specially designed tables and chairs)? (d) Are other aids available (e.g., Brailled menus, Brailled programs)? (e) Will assistance be provided to disabled persons if they come unescorted?

When the directory is completed, copies could be given to local associations for the handicapped for distribution to handicapped persons.

8. FINDING OUT ABOUT DEVICES THAT AID THE DISABLED

Purpose: To help students to understand the importance of mechanical and electronic devices to the disabled.

Description: Prostheses and special mechanical appliances make it possible for many disabled people to function in what otherwise would be handicapping environments.

a. Have students collect as many examples of devices for the disabled as they can locate and demonstrate their use to the members of the class. Some of these protheses and appliances (e.g., hearing aids, canes, wheelchairs, crutches, braces, Braillers) may be available on loan from local organizations for the handicapped, from hospitals, and from classrooms for the blind and deaf. (See Chapter 4.)
b. Information on appliances not readily available in the local community may be gathered from brochures of companies who manufacture or distribute them. The names of these companies can be located by contacting associations for the handicapped or from advertisements in magazines and journals pertaining to the disabled (e.g., *Accent on Living, Exceptional Children, ASHA, Paraplegia, Performances, Rehabilition World, International Rehabilitation Review*). Advertisements are also a source of pictures of the many devices available for the disabled.
c. The cost of many protheses and appliances is very high. Assign students the task of finding the prices of several devices. Also, have them check on the frequency and cost of service and repairs. Have students contact local and state agencies and organizations for the handicapped to determine how prostheses and appliances are provided to disabled persons. Questions that should be considered are: (1) Is the disabled person (or the family) responsible for buying the device, and is financial assistance available? If so, from whom does this assistance come? (2) Do insurance policies cover the cost of devices? If so, under what circumstances? (3) Who pays for devices that are necessary because of on the job injuries? (4) Are devices ever provided without cost to disabled persons unable to pay for them? If so, by whom? And, must they be returned when the disabled person moves from the community or state?
d. Prostheses and other devices for the disabled are constantly being improved or new items developed—e.g., spring loaded crutches; wheelchairs for outdoor use and stairs; breath activated environmental control systems, wheelchairs, typewriters; myoelectric hands; para-ambulation platforms; laser light canes, sonic guides, and reading machines; electronic voice systems; electronic sports equipment; even monkeys trained to act as aids. Have students prepare reports on recent breakthroughs and devices under development. Ask some students to choose particular devices to study and either suggest redesigns to improve them or create new devices. Their suggestions with diagrams could be submitted to appliance companies for comment.

9. FINDING OUT ABOUT THE PIONEERS IN THE FIELD

Purpose: To introduce students to the people who have made important contributions to the understanding and correction of disabilities.

Description: Give students names from the following list on which to write brief reports. The reports should contain answers to questions such as the following: (a) When did the person live? (b) Of what nationality was this person? In what country was most of this person's work done? (c) What were conditions like in the field when he or she began their work? (d) What mo-

tivated the person's accomplishments? (e) What was the person's greatest contribution? (f) Is the work of this person still influential today?

Pioneers

Alfred Adler
Alfred Binet
Hans Berger
Louis Braille
Jean Cruveilhier
Grace Maxwell Fernald
Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet
Roy Graham
Ludwig Guttman
Valentin Hauy
Henry Head
Samuel Heinicke
Samuel Gridley Howe
Jean Marc Caspart Itard
John Hughlings Jackson
Charles Michael de l'Epee
Charles S. Locock
Winthrop Morgan Phelps
Pedro de Ponce
Jonas Salk
Edouard Sequin
Alfred A. Strauss

10. THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF DISABLED PERSONS

Purpose: To help students to understand that many disabled persons have achieved greatness as soldiers, statesmen, politicians, novelists, poets, artists, musicians and composers, and athletes.

Description:

a. Assign students names from the following list and have them prepare brief reports. These reports might include answers to questions such as, (1) When did the person live? (2) What was his or her disability? (3) In what way[s] was this disability a handicap? (4) How did the person manage to overcome the handicap and achieve greatness? (5) Is the influence of this person's accomplishments still felt today?

Disabled Persons

Alexander the Great (epilepsy)
Grover Cleveland Alexander (epilepsy)
Douglas Bader (amputated legs)
Ludwig van Beethoven (hearing impaired)
Juan Belmonte (deformed body)
Sara Bernhart (amputated leg)
Napoleon Bonaparte (epilepsy)
Jorge Luis Borges (visually impaired)
Laura Bridgman (blind, deaf)
Elizabeth Barrett Browning (tuberculosis)
Lord Byron (deformed foot)
Julius Caesar (epilepsy)
Miguel de Cervantes (amputated arm)
Winston Churchill (stuttering)
Glen Cunningham (damaged leg)
Charles Darwin (stutterer)
Benjamin Disraeli (gout)
Fodor Dostoyevsky (epilepsy)
Thomas Edison (hearing impaired, learning disability)
Francisco Goya (deaf)
Vincent van Gogh (emotionally disturbed)
George Frederich Handel (blind)
Homer (blind)
James Joyce (visually impaired)
John Keats (tuberculosis)
Helen Keller (blind, deaf)
John F. Kennedy (back injury)
Charles Lamb (epilepsy)
Tony Lazzeri (epilepsy)
Jean Lenglais (blind)
Guy de Maupassant (mentally ill)
John Milton (blind)
Moses (speech impairment)
Lord Nelson (amputated arm, missing eye)
William Pitt (epilepsy)
Joseph Pulitzer (blind)
Franklin Delano Roosevelt (poliomyelitis)
George Shearing (blind)
Charles Steinmetz (hunchback)
Alec Templeton (blind)
James Thurber (visually impaired)
Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec (deformed, crippled)

b. Students could locate the names of other disabled persons whose achievements have been remarkable. Teachers in the school might be asked to identify disabled persons who have contributed to their fields (e.g., English, science, mathematics, physical education).
c. Have students locate the names of contemporary disabled persons who have achieved success in their fields. Their lists may include names such as Jay J. Armes (amputated hands), Ray Charles (blind), Max Cleland (amputee), Ronnie Millsap (blind), Kitty O'Neal (deaf), Itzhak Perlman (paraplegic), Mel Tillis (stutterer), Henry Viscardi (legless), Stevie Wonder (blind).

11. WRITING BIOGRAPHIES OF DISABLED PEOPLE IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

Purpose: To develop student empathy and respect for the disabled by having students investigate and record the achievements of disabled persons in their community.

Description: Many students will know disabled persons. Local associations for the handicapped might identify others. Have some students interview disabled persons who are living successful lives. Success may involve simply leading a productive, independent life or being in a special leadership position. Examples of questions that may be asked during the interviews are given in Chapter 6. When completed, some of the biographies might be submitted to local newspapers for publication as human interest stories. (Interesting sample biographies can be found in *Profiles in Success* prepared by the Washington State Department of Social Services, Olympia WA 98504.)

12. READING ABOUT THE DISABLED

Purpose: To use contemporary fiction, autobiographies, and biographies to increase student understanding of what it is like to live with a disabling condition.

Description: Have students select and read a book about or by a disabled person. Have each student complete a book report or do an alternative assignment, such as the following: (a) select a scene from the book and write a script for a television program; (b) record on tape an extract from the book as a radio play; (c) role play an event from the story; (d) write a letter in the role of the major character at a crucial moment in the book; (e) prepare an interview between the major character and a newspaper or television reporter; (f) draw pictures that portray important events; (g) have a radio reporter describe an important event in the book as it is taking place; (h) simulate a "hot line" radio program and have the major characters in the story respond to questions asked by listeners.

The bibliography at the end of this chapter includes the names of books about disabled persons that are suitable for high school students. Additional lists of books, including titles appropriate for junior high students and below average readers in high school, are given in:

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13. OBSERVING IMPEDIMENTS FOR THE DISABLED

Purpose: To develop student understanding of the number of impediments a disabled person may encounter in a normal day.

Description: Have students contact disabled persons identified for Project 11 or used as classroom resource people (see Chapter 6) and ask if they can accompany them for a day. Have the students keep notes on the physical impediments (e.g., lack of curb cuts or ramps) and social barriers (e.g., salespeople who speak only to their companion) the disabled person encountered. A written report or an oral report to the class should focus on the number of impediments encountered and their seriousness in terms of living a normal life and having a positive self image. Different students should observe persons with different disabilities so that a broad perspective on impediments will be gained.

14. PHOTO ESSAYS ON THE DISABLED

Purpose: To develop student appreciation of the difficulties faced by the disabled as well as their similarities to other persons through use of photography.

Description: Some of your students may have photography as a hobby. Taking photographs for their own photo essays would be an excellent way for them to gain appreciation of the frustrations and joys of disabled persons, and to evoke appreciation in other students. Topics might include: barriers (physical and/or social) faced by the disabled; moments of joy or frustration in the life of a disabled person, the lives of a group of

disabled persons; encountering daily challenges; doing the usual (i.e., handicapped persons engaging in the normal daily routines that non-handicapped persons do). The photos could be mounted in a loose leaf book or made into a bulletin board display for sharing with others.

15. COLLECTING NEWS ITEMS ON THE DISABLED

Purpose: To use items available in newspapers and magazines to increase student understanding of the disabled.

Description: Have students clip photos, news items, and advertisements from newspapers and magazines on topics such as: the daily life problems faced by the disabled; surmounting disabilities to make special personal achievements or contributions to society; public issues raised in, for example, news reports involving disabled persons, statements by organizations for the handicapped, protests, legislative or judicial actions. Students could organize their clippings, with comments, in scrapbooks, or prepare bulletin board displays.

BEYOND PROJECTS

Some of the suggested projects can be done by individual students; many could be fruitfully handled by groups of students. In either case, the results of projects should be shared among all of the students in a class to the extent possible. Followup activities, such as class discussions, panel discussions, and bulletin board displays, will be crucial.

Coordination of projects with simulation activities, such as suggested in the prior chapter, and with the use of resource people, as suggested in the next chapter, will also be important. Simulations can, for example, provide the impetus for meaningful projects, and projects can provide some of the knowledge base for meaningful interaction with resource persons.

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6
UNDERSTANDING THE HANDICAPPED: COMMUNITY RESOURCE PEOPLE

People in the local community are frequently a fruitful resource for social studies topics, and handicapped education is no exception. A variety of persons can help students to understand the disabled.

A primary local resource will be disabled persons themselves. Talking with them will provide, overall, the best opportunities for students to appreciate that disabled persons share with the nondisabled the goal of meaningful, productive lives and that there is as much variety in interests and orientations among the disabled as there is among the nondisabled. Discussions with the disabled, and a second major local resource, their parents and other family members, can also help to personalize the day by day meaning of a disability to a person trying to achieve normal life goals.

Another local resource will be organizations concerned with the handicapped. Their staffs and members will have special knowledge to share with students. Some will be private associations such as the Easter Seal Society, a local association for the blind or for the deaf, a local Multiple Sclerosis society; others may be government agencies such as a Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, or a government supported organization, such as Cerebral Palsy Center. (If students find it difficult to identify which of these exist in your community, so will disabled people. Making up and distributing a Guide to Community Services for the Disabled is a community action project that could make a real contribution.)

The personnel with such organizations will often be able to help students to better understand the attributes of various handicapping conditions and the needs of persons with the conditions. Often, too, they will be up to date on the status of research on a disabling condition, including new corrective or assisting devices. Some local organizations will be actively seeking civil rights for the handicapped, and will be able to acquaint students with the issues involved. Along those lines, a local branch of the American Civil Liberties Union may be able to provide helpful resource persons. Also, persons from governmental agencies with responsibility to enforce regulations barring discrimination in employment or calling for the elimination of architectural barriers for the disabled could speak to the issues involved.

Of course, private businesses are another excellent source of resource people. Representatives of companies that manufacture or supply prostheses or appliances for the disabled could do demonstrations and talk about ongoing research and development work. Personnel managers could speak about hiring practices as they affect the disabled and the companies. Large firms (and universities) will often have an Affirmative Action Officer who can enlighten students on the approaches and issues in extending equality of opportunity.

Professionals concerned with the handicapped often provide an excellent source of specialized information on disabilities. Included would be medical doctors and physical therapists, and professors in special education. In particular, teachers of the handicapped in your own school or school district will often be excellent resource persons, as well as being knowledgeable about other individuals who fit your instructional needs.

GUEST SPEAKERS

There are two major ways in which to capitalize on what will often turn out to be an abundance of local resource people—use them as guest speakers and as interview sources. It is particularly important that disabled persons and family members be brought to the classroom as speakers so that all students will have some personal contact with them. Such people will often also be excellent interview sources; and from among the myriad of other resource people, many will have experiences and expertise that you will want shared with the entire class.

Selecting Speakers

Careful identification, selection, and preparation for guest speakers is particularly important when disabled persons or their family members are invited to class. There are a number of ways to identify potential speakers: by contacting associations and organizations such as those mentioned above, by asking other teachers, especially teachers of the handicapped, and by considering persons known personally by you and your students.

Selection is important. For professional persons and those coming from organizations, try to find someone who has heard them speak who can tell you whether they can speak effectively to the age group students you teach.

Most speakers from organizations will be accustomed to public appearances. The situation is likely to be different with disabled persons and family members. Not only will they often not be experienced speakers, but they will be dealing with personal matters if the students are to ask the questions they deem meaningful. It is important that guest speakers be at ease with themselves and with their disability in order to discuss it openly and respond to the direct questions students will want to ask. Based on a great deal of experience in using disabled persons as guest speakers, Susan Bookbinder (see references for Chapter 4) suggests that once potential speakers are identified, the teacher should meet with each personally. The discussion should not focus on whether they would like to be a guest speaker, but on what, from their own experience, would be most helpful for students to experience and learn in their studies of the disabled. From that meeting, you will gain good teaching ideas as well as a sense of how comfortable the person is with his or her disability, their ability to communicate with your students, and their warmth and sense of humor. Then, you can call back to ask those most qualified to speak to your students.

Clearly, such interviews will take time. However, you will not have to do many, as you will undoubtedly not be able to use many speakers. Also, you will be able to rely on recommendations in deciding which persons to contact initially. In Bookbinder's experience, too, once you have identified appropriate speakers who do a good job, you will want to invite them back and they will enjoy the experience and want to come back.

Preparing for Speakers

With all speakers, preparation is crucial. Be sure to let each speaker know your expectations. What would you like your students to learn or experience? For example, if you would like a prostheses salesperson to talk about new research and development, be sure he or she knows that before arriving in class. Tell the speaker how long you would like the presentation to be, how long students will have to ask questions, and what kinds of questions might be expected from your students because of their age level, interests, and previous experiences and study. Disabled persons in particular might be asked to talk about their childhood, their family, job (or school, if a student), and recreational activities. Asking that they be prepared to relate real life anecdotes that will have personal meaning to your students would be an important suggestion. Similar guidance should be given to family members.

Preparing the students is also important. Some review of the questions they might ask will be helpful, particularly when the guest speaker is to be a specialized source of information. Such review will also be helpful prior to an appearance by a disabled person or family member. Setting a general tone for the session will be equally important. Let the students know that the speaker will be willing to talk about his or her disability and its effects, and that almost any question, as long as it is tasteful (for example, not using objectionable words) will be allowed. However, the speaker must be given the option of not responding.

SAMPLE QUESTIONS

It is often difficult for students to formulate questions. Below we list a number of examples that

might be considered, depending, of course, on the disability and the person (e.g., whether an adult or a teenager). Projects in Chapter 5 also contain suggestions for questions.

Questions for Disabled Persons

About the Disability

1. The terms *disabled* and *handicapped* are often used to describe people with physical or mental impairments. Which term do you prefer, and why? Is there a more suitable term? By what term would you like people to refer to your disability?
2. When did you first realize that you were disabled? How did you feel? How do you feel today?
3. What caused your disability? Could it have been prevented—then, now? Do you hope for some medical or technical advance that will help you to overcome your disability?
4. Do you use a prosthesis or aid? If you do, how was it paid for?
5. How do you feel about organizations for the handicapped? Are you a member of such an organization?
6. How do you feel about charities and telethons? Who should be responsible for meeting the needs of disabled people? Do you receive government assistance, including tax deductions, as a disabled person? What should government responsibility be?
7. Do you think that people react to you according to stereotypes based on your disability? If so, what sort of incidents lead you to that conclusion?
8. When should disabled persons be assisted and when should they be left alone? How can one best find out if a disabled person wants assistance?
9. Do people ask particular questions or make comments, especially when you first meet them, that disturb you? How should nonhandicapped persons act when they are introduced to handicapped people?
10. Do you find anything to be especially tiring (either mentally or physically)?
11. Do handicapped people have a special language (e.g., body language) that the nonhandicapped are not aware of?

About Home

1. Do you require special equipment for reading, writing, telephoning, for shaving, bathing, brushing teeth, combing or curling hair, putting on cosmetics, putting on clothing?
2. Are any rooms in your house or apartment specially designed for you?
3. Can you use food mixers, can openers, and other standard kitchen appliances; do the laundry (washing and ironing); turn lights on and off, open and close windows and doors, turn taps on and off?
4. Do your clothes have special features?
5. Do you require help with shopping, house cleaning, cooking, gardening, or house repairs? If so, who provides this help?
6. Can you get emergency help if you need it?

About Education

1. Were you educated in a special school or class, or in a regular classroom? Which would you have preferred while you were attending school, and why? Which would you now prefer, and why?
2. What particular educational problems were created by your disability? Were these problems ameliorated or overcome, and, if so, how?
3. If you had the opportunity to do so, how would you improve the quality of education received by persons with a similar disability?

About Employment

1. Do you have an occupation? If so, what is it, and how did you find your present employment?
2. Is your job the one you preferred? If not, what did you prefer and what stood in the way?
3. Is your ability to do your job inhibited by your disability? Does your disability affect your chances for promotion? Did you have to obtain special training beyond that required for nonhandicapped workers doing the same job? Do you need special equipment? If so, who paid for it?
4. At your job, do you do the same work as nonhandicapped persons?
5. Are there things that you do easily at your job, and others that are difficult or frustrating?

About Social and Recreation Activities

1. Are most of your friends disabled or nondisabled? Is that what you prefer, and why?
2. If you are married, is your spouse disabled? If you aren't married, do you date disabled and nondisabled persons?
3. What is your preference for a "night on the town?"

4. What do you enjoy doing in your leisure time?
5. Are you a member of any sports or social clubs?
6. Do you take vacations away from home? Are there special considerations in deciding where you will vacation?

About Transportation

1. Do you drive an automobile? Do you require special equipment in order to do so?
2. Do you encounter problems with public transportation? If so, what problems? Could these problems be solved?
3. As a disabled person, do you find taxi drivers hesitant to pick you up? Do you get reduced rates when you ride in taxis?
4. Are you provided with transportation through a local service organization?

Questions for Family Members

Parent

1. How has family life been affected by having a disabled child?
2. What was your reaction when you found out your child was disabled? How do you feel about it now?
3. Did the child's disability present special problems while he or she was an infant? Did you receive any assistance? If so, what and from whom?
4. Did you (do you) find it difficult to talk about your child with doctors and professional workers, relatives, friends, people you meet? How did you (and do you) describe your child when such people inquire(d) about him or her?
5. If you have other children, what is the relationship between the disabled child and his or her siblings? Do problems develop between the disabled child and the other children? If so, how do you deal with them?
6. How much assistance do you think a disabled child should receive from his or her parents or brothers and sisters?
7. Are you concerned about what will happen to your disabled child as an adult?
8. What advice would you give to the parents of a similarly disabled child?

Brother or Sister

1. What responsibilities do you have for your disabled brother or sister? How do you feel about these responsibilities?
2. Do you spend much of your leisure time with your brother or sister?
3. Does he or she ever accompany you when you go out with friends?
4. How do you introduce your brother or sister to new acquaintances?
5. What do you most like doing with him/her?
6. Do you think about what will happen to your brother or sister when he or she reaches adulthood? What will your responsibilities be toward him or her then?
7. What is the most important thing you have learned through having a disabled brother or sister?

Questions for Other Speakers

Speakers other than disabled persons and their family members will usually be invited to the classroom for special purposes, based on their particular position and expertise. It is not practicable to suggest sample questions for the variety of speakers which might be used. It will be important, however, that you help students prepare questions ahead of time. As with interviews, as indicated in the following section, start by having the students decide what it is they hope will be accomplished by having the speaker come to class, and then help them to formulate questions to reach that end.

INTERVIEWS

Interviews with community resource people can be an excellent source of information, and conducting the interviews an excellent learning experience for students. Preparation for interviews is perhaps more crucial than for guest speakers, because in the latter case, you will be present to moderate discussion and ask questions and make suggestions.

Prior to identifying who to interview, students should be helped to plan what they hope to accomplish. A good beginning point is to help them define the problem they hope to deal with through the interview(s). If it is a lack of information, what type of information? What questions do they hope the person(s) to be interviewed will answer?

Once the purpose of the interview is established, the identification of potential source people can be done. Although it will be of concern whether the resource person can communicate easily with junior high or high school students, whether they can provide pertinent information or ideas is more important. Initial focus should

be on the types of people who could be helpful. Will they be disabled persons or their families, government officials, staff of public and private service agencies, business persons, personnel managers, and so on? Once types are identified you can help the students identify individuals or contact associations, companies, and agencies for suggestions or to ask for someone from within the organization.

Initial contacts with persons to be interviewed must also be carefully planned. The student should explain the study and how he or she hopes the interview will contribute to it. The types of questions to be asked, with examples, should be discussed. How the interview is to be recorded (notes, an audio or video recorder) should be agreed upon. And, a time and place for the interview should be set. Usually, having the students go to the resource person's home or place of employment will be necessary to obtain cooperation.

Although we provided sample questions for disabled and family guest speakers, it is not practical to do so for interviews. The questions in each case will depend on the nature of the problem.

Prior to the interview, the questions to be asked, along with followup probes, should be planned carefully. Have the student try them out on another student playing the role of the source person. Students will often need to learn through trial and error in actual interviews what types of questions will elicit adequate responses. Interviewing is an important skill in social sciences such as sociology and anthropology, and those courses offer ideal opportunities for the interviewing of resource persons.

Interpreting interview results also affords students a valuable opportunity to practice important social science skills. A class report or a paper will be an important culminating activity for the individual students or groups of students who conduct interviews. Helping students with their reports will be an excellent time to enhance their skills in weighing and interpreting information.

Interviewing will not be a desirable activity for all students. Because it is time consuming, some will lack the initiative. Others will lack the necessary verbal skills. It is our experience, however, that if the problem underlying the interview is important to the students, if they can see its impact on their own lives in junior high or feel its impact on the lives of others as they mature in high school, they will be eager to conduct interviews and will do an excellent job. In one study, for example, we acquainted "slow learning" students with the difficulties they might face in obtaining housing as adults. To gather data and opinions, they were eager to conduct interviews with business persons and government officials. And their interviewing skills earned positive comments.

Such motivation is part of the merit of studying the disabled. The justification of such study stems from the real life difficulties of identifiable individuals that raise questions about the fundamental assumptions underlying the life of each of us. Local resource people are excellent means for personalizing handicapism and its effects for students. As we have emphasized to this point, other sources are vital, too. The next chapter suggests ways in which students can determine the extent to which the disabled face special problems in your community.

7
LIVING WITH HANDICAPS: LOOKING AT THE COMMUNITY

Like most other persons, most of those who are disabled want to live independent lives. But they face many barriers in their environments, often unnoticed by nondisabled persons, that thwart that desire. Some of these barriers are potentially within personal control. For example, disabled persons can (assuming the necessary financial resources) often obtain prostheses and other devices to help overcome their disability, or modify their own homes to make them livable. Several of the projects for students in Chapter 5 deal with possible personal accommodations. Also, several of the questions suggested in Chapter 6 to be asked of disabled resource persons and their family members focus on their personal adaptations. As was noted in Chapter 1, however, many of the obstacles to self reliance are out of the control of individual disabled persons. They are standard parts of communities which have often not been sensitive to the constraints of disabling conditions.

This chapter presents suggestions for helping students look at impediments to the disabled in their own communities. The activities—along with simulations from Chapter 4, many of the projects from Chapter 5, and contact with resource persons as suggested in Chapter 6—will fit well in many social studies courses, as suggested in Chapter 8. They will also be helpful in the consideration of public issues related to the handicapped, as discussed in Chapter 9.

Much of the focus of this chapter is on laws that promote accessibility to buildings, transportation, and employment by the handicapped. As important as such laws are, the discussion of obstacles to the handicapped should also include moral, humane considerations. An overarching consideration is, What, beyond that which is required by law, might be the obligations of the nonhandicapped to the promotion of equality of opportunity for the handicapped?

BUILDINGS

Accessibility is a major concern of the disabled. What *accessibility* means is dependent upon the particular disability. For example, building accessibility for paraplegics is based in part on the amount of space required for maneuvering a wheelchair. Wheelchairs for adults are typically up to about 26 inches wide, from outside of wheel to outside of wheel, and about 42 inches long. (Figure 1 illustrates typical wheelchair dimensions.) An unobstructed corridor or door opening at least 30 to 32 inches wide is recommended for safe wheelchair travel. To complete a smooth 180 degree turn, a space 60 inches by 78 inches is required. Aside from space, other considerations are the nature of the floor or ground surface (steps present major problems, and flights of stairs are nearly impassable) and limits on how high one can reach from a wheelchair.

Building accessibility for blind persons is less affected by corridor size, since the touch technique for cane use requires a space of only 6 inches beyond each shoulder. Blind people, however, are especially susceptible to injury by hanging objects and objects extending outward from walls. Other barriers to the blind are unidentifiable floor buttons and lack of audible floor signals on elevators and revolving doors that are difficult to get through.

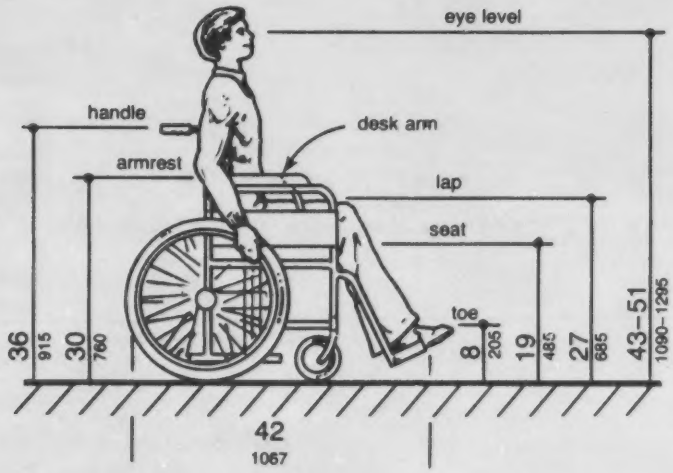


Figure 1. Typical Wheelchair Dimensions in Inches and Millimeters.

Accessibility for people with hearing impairments largely involves communications. Environmental barriers for the hearing impaired include poorly lighted rooms that inhibit lipreading, background music in offices and stores that interferes with speech communication, inadequate public address systems, telephones without amplifiers, and audio-only emergency and warning signals.

Laws

Building accessibility has not been ignored by policy makers, in part because of political pressure from activist handicapped groups. The Architectural Barriers Act of 1968 decreed that all buildings paid for in part or totally with federal funds (including design, new construction, modifications, or leasing costs) must be accessible to disabled persons. In 1973, the Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board (A&TBCB) was established to ensure compliance with this law. Minimum standards for accessible buildings have been developed by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI). They are described in *American National Standards Specifications for Making Buildings Accessible to, and Useable by, the Physically Handicapped.*

All states also now have laws that require local or state funded buildings to be accessible to the disabled. Many states also have building codes requiring all new buildings or facilities that are to be open to the public to be barrier free. Moreover, in some states, private businesses that make their premises barrier free qualify for tax deductions.

The costs of making buildings accessible to the disabled is a matter of concern. According to the A&TBCB publication, *About Barriers*, the construction of barrier free new buildings adds less than one-half of 1% to total costs. Making existing buildings reasonably accessible may cost as little as one cent per square foot (see Kleinfield, 1979, p. 146). The costs of barrier free buildings can be contrasted—for example, in an economics class—against such factors as increased numbers of customers, increased education, and increased pools of able employees, not forgetting, however, the payoff in equality of opportunity which cannot be assigned a dollar figure.

Looking Locally

In Chapter 5, we suggested (Project 13) that it would be worthwhile for students to observe and report on the obstacles that disabled persons encounter in a typical day. Gathering more widespread data can also be an effective way for students to increase their understanding of the obstructions disabled people encounter daily in their communities. Below is a Building Accessibility Survey that can be used intact or as a basis for students to develop their own instru-

ment for investigating building accessibility.* The standards in the survey are based on criteria listed in the American National Standards Publication ANSI A117.1 (see chapter references).

Using the survey, or one like it, students might start by investigating accessibility in their own school. Then government offices, business buildings, community centers, cultural and recreation facilities, churches, and the meeting places of service clubs and lodges (such as suggested for the directory in Project 7 in Chapter 5) might be examined. (If a directory of facilities has been developed, survey data could make it even more helpful.) In many instances, sharing the survey results with responsible persons—for example, government officials and building owners—might result in improvements. Students should be prepared to consider reasons for not making changes, such as the expense involved (see Kleinfield, 1979, p. 146); the lack of local, state, or federal funds for the modifications; and that the building was constructed before existing Acts.

* For example, if students were to use the instrument to investigate grocery stores, they would want to add items, in the INTERIORS section, on height and usability of shopping carts, height of shelves from which products are to be reached, and width of checkout lanes.

BUILDING ACCESSIBILITY SURVEY

Building _____ Address _____

City _____ Date _____

Survey conducted by _____

Parking and Passenger Loading Zones

	Yes	*No*
1. There is at least one parking space reserved for handicapped persons.	_____	_____
2. The international symbol of accessibility can be clearly seen even when a vehicle is parked in the space.	_____	_____
3. The parking space is located on the shortest possible route to the entrance to the building.	_____	_____
4. The parking space is at least 96 inches wide.	_____	_____
5. There is an adjacent aisle 60 inches wide to permit easy access to vehicle.	_____	_____
6. Any passenger loading zone has an access aisle that is parallel to the pull-up space and is at least 48 inches wide and 20 feet long.	_____	_____

Accessible Route

	Yes	*No*
1. There is an accessible route from each of the following to the accessible building:		
a. public transportation stop	_____	_____
b. parking lot	_____	_____
c. passenger loading zone	_____	_____
d. public street	_____	_____
2. The accessible route connects with accessible entrances.	_____	_____
3. The accessible route is at least 36 inches wide.	_____	_____
4. There are 60 inch by 60 inch passing spaces at least every 200 feet.	_____	_____
5. The surface of the ground is stable and firm in all kinds of weather.	_____	_____
6. Where the change in ground level is between 1/4 inch and 1/2 inch, it is beveled with a slope no greater than 1:2.	_____	_____
7. There is a curb cut or ramp wherever the access route crosses a curb.	_____	_____

	Yes	No
8. The slope of the curb cut or ramp is no greater than 1:12.	_____	_____
9. The curb cut or ramp has a tactile warning texture (e.g., aggregate concrete, raised strips) extending the full length and width of the ramp.	_____	_____
10. There are tactile warning textures at hazardous vehicle areas.	_____	_____

Inside and Outside Ramps

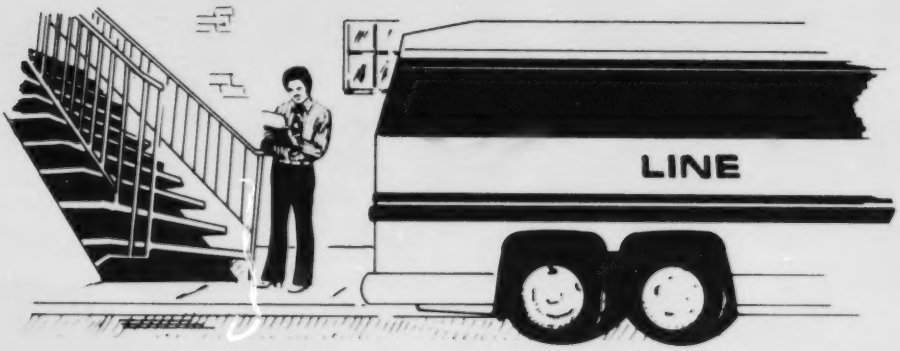
1. The minimum width of the ramp is at least 36 inches.	_____	_____
2. The maximum slope of the ramp does not exceed 1:12.	_____	_____
3. The maximum rise of any ramp run is 30 inches.	_____	_____
4. The ramp has landings at the top and bottom of each run.	_____	_____
5. The landings are as wide as the ramp width and at least 60 inches in length.	_____	_____
6. Where ramps change direction, the minimum landing size is 60 inches by 60 inches.	_____	_____
7. Handrails are installed on both sides of any ramp that has a rise greater than 6 inches.	_____	_____
8. The width of the gripping surface of the handrails is between 1 1/4 inches and 1 1/2 inches.	_____	_____
9. Handrails attached to walls extend at least 1 1/2 inch out from the wall.	_____	_____
10. Ramps with dropoff have minimum 2 inches high curbs to prevent wheelchair from sliding off.	_____	_____

Interiors

A. *Halls, Corridors, and Aisles*		
1. Accessible halls, corridors, and aisles connect with all interior spaces.	_____	_____
2. The minimum width of halls, corridors, and aisles is 36 inches.	_____	_____
3. The minimum height of halls, corridors, and aisles is 80 inches.	_____	_____
4. There are 60 inch by 60 inch passing spaces at least every 200 feet.	_____	_____
5. Carpets:		
a. are securely attached to the floor	_____	_____
b. have a maximum pile length of 1/2 inch	_____	_____
c. have carpet edge trim along all exposed edges	_____	_____
6. Halls, corridors, and aisles are adequately lighted.	_____	_____
7. Noise from mechanical equipment (e.g., air conditioning units) is suppressed.	_____	_____
8. Ceilings are covered with sound absorptive material.	_____	_____
9. All rooms are numbered and pertinent information (e.g., office titles) is prominently displayed.	_____	_____
B. *Protruding Objects*		
1. Objects attached to walls and more than 27 inches above the floor protrude no more than 4 inches into the hall, corridor, or aisle.	_____	_____
2. Objects attached to posts (e.g., telephones) and more than 27 inches above the floor overhang no more than 12 inches.	_____	_____
3. The bottoms of signs hanging from ceilings are at least 80 inches above the floor.	_____	_____
C. *Doors*		
1. The minimum opened width is 32 inches.	_____	_____
2. At least one door at the main entrance of the building is an accessible door.	_____	_____

	Yes	*No*
3. Automatic doors stay open for at least 3 seconds.	_____	_____
4. The thresholds of sliding doors do not exceed 3/4 inch and are beveled with a slope no greater than 1:2.	_____	_____
5. The thresholds of other doors do not exceed 1/2 inch and are beveled with a slope no greater than 1:2.	_____	_____
6. Door handles, pulls, and latches have a shape that is easy to grasp and do not require tight grasping, tight pinching, or twisting of the wrist to operate.	_____	_____
7. There are tactile warning textures on handles, pulls, or latches on doors that lead to dangerous areas (e.g., loading platforms, furnace rooms).	_____	_____
8. Where privacy is not necessary, doors have clear glass panels.	_____	_____
D. *Elevators*		
1. All passenger elevators are on an accessible route.	_____	_____
2. All elevators are identified by an overhanging sign.	_____	_____
3. The elevator operation is automatic.	_____	_____
4. The self leveling device on the elevator brings the car to floor landing within 1/2 inch.	_____	_____
5. Call buttons are located 42 inches above the floor.	_____	_____
6. The minimum diameter of each call button is 3/4 inch and the up button is on top.	_____	_____
7. Call answering lights are located at least 72 inches above the floor.	_____	_____
8. An audible signal is given (once for up and twice for down) when the elevator is answering a call.	_____	_____
9. Elevator entrances have raised or indented floor designations on both door jambs.	_____	_____
10. The width of the door is at least 36 inches.	_____	_____
11. When closing door encounters an obstruction; it reopens quickly and remains open for at least 20 seconds.	_____	_____
12. The minimum dimensions of the elevator car floor are 54 inches (length) by 68 inches (width).	_____	_____
13. The floor selection buttons are no higher than 54 inches above the car floor.	_____	_____
14. The emergency control buttons (alarm and emergency stop) are not less than 35 inches above the car floor.	_____	_____
15. Each floor button is at least 3/4 inch in diameter.	_____	_____
16. Control buttons are designed with raised or indented alphabet characters for letters (e.g., "M," "B") and arabic characters for numerals.	_____	_____
17. Tactile symbols are used for other controls (e.g., a bell for emergency alarm, a stop sign for emergency stop).	_____	_____
18. As the elevator moves up or down there is an audible sound (or an automatic verbal announcement) for each floor.	_____	_____
E. *Drinking Fountains*		
1. At least one drinking fountain is located on the accessible route.	_____	_____
2. Drinking fountains are identified by an overhead sign.	_____	_____
3. The fountain can be operated with one hand and does not require tight grasping or pinching, or twisting of the wrist.	_____	_____
4. The height of the water spout is no more than 36 inches.	_____	_____
5. The spout is located in the front of the unit and the water flow is parallel to the front of the unit.	_____	_____
6. The flow of the water is at least 4 inches high (to allow a cup or glass to be inserted).	_____	_____

	Yes	*No*
7. There is floor space of at least 30 inches by 48 inches in front of the fountain to permit a person in a wheelchair to make a parallel approach.	_____	_____
F. *Telephones*		
1. The floor space in front of the telephone is at least 30 inches by 48 inches.	_____	_____
2. The highest operable part of the telephone is not above 48 inches for a forward approach in a wheelchair or above 54 inches for a side approach.	_____	_____
3. The width of a telephone booth is at least 30 inches.	_____	_____
4. The telephone has pushbutton controls.	_____	_____
5. The telephone has a volume control for hearing impaired people.	_____	_____
6. The length of the telephone cord is at least 29 inches.	_____	_____
7. Telephone books are located where they can be used easily by people in wheelchairs.	_____	_____
8. At least one telephone, identified by an overhead sign, is amplified.	_____	_____
G. *Washrooms*		
1. Toilets:		
a. are between 17 inches and 19 inches from the floor to the toilet seat	_____	_____
b. have flush controls no more than 44 inches above the floor	_____	_____
c. have paper dispensers installed within easy reach	_____	_____
d. have grab bars	_____	_____
e. have a floor space at least 48 inches wide and 66 inches deep.	_____	_____
2. Urinals:		
a. are no more than 17 inches above the floor	_____	_____
b. have hand operated control no more than 44 inches above the floor	_____	_____
c. have a floor space of at least 30 inches by 48 inches in front.	_____	_____
3. Wash basins:		
a. have a 29 inch clearance between the bottom and the floor	_____	_____
b. have faucets that can be operated easily with one hand	_____	_____
c. have hot water pipes (under the basin) that are insulated or covered	_____	_____
d. have a floor space in front of them of at least 30 inches by 48 inches.	_____	_____
4. There is at least one mirror whose bottom edge is no higher than 40 inches from the floor.	_____	_____



TRANSPORTATION

The availability of transportation is a fundamental prerequisite for self reliance in our mobile society. Many disabled persons—for example, the blind—cannot drive their own vehicles. But some, even with severe disabilities, can drive vehicles with special adaptions, such as cars with shifting and braking devices or vans with lifts and other arrangements to allow wheelchair access. Oftentimes these adaptions are expensive, in addition to the cost of the vehicle, and beyond the financial means of disabled persons. Moreover, many disabled people live in cities, and like other city dwellers, find vehicle ownership too expensive or inconvenient. But public transportation is not accessible to over 13,000,000 handicapped Americans. For millions of others, public transportation can be used only with the assistance of other people.

To ameliorate the public transportation situation, the U.S. Department of Transportation issued an order in 1977 requiring the production of "transbuses" with extendable ramps, wide doors, secure places for wheelchairs, and other features to make them accessible to nonambulatory people. Buses purchased using federal funds must be transbuses. Some states also require their purchase as transit lines replace buses. But the problem persists as buses must first wear out to be replaced. And, in any event, getting to and from bus stops continues to present difficulties for the handicapped.

Subways—with the exception of newly constructed ones in the Atlanta, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C. areas—are not accessible to wheelchair users because of flights of steps, narrow turnstiles, spaces between platforms and cars, and lack of chair locking devices. The San Francisco area (BART) subway, in a move that made sense to nondisabled people, has considered automating some stations. Agents would no longer be employed there, with monitoring done by closed circuit television. This proposal raised grave prospects for disabled persons, such as the blind, who often need assistance with paying fares and fear what would happen if they fell on the tracks or were attacked by a mugger or rapist.

Some disabled persons are able to use taxis, but they are expensive. Moreover, many taxi drivers will not pick up handicapped persons because of attitudes such as those discussed in Chapter 3 or because of the inconvenience. Also, persons in wheelchairs often find it difficult to get in and out of taxis.

In some areas special bus or van service is available, either from nonprofit agencies or private companies. Frequently, the nonprofit agency buses are available only for specific destinations and only during limited periods each day. Private vans and buses for the handicapped are often expensive, with fares three or four times those of taxis. Often, too, the private businesses are unregulated or safety standards—such as adequate ceiling room and devices to lock wheelchairs in place in vans—are not well enforced.

In order to better understand what it is like to live with handicaps in their community, students can conduct surveys of transportation accessibility. Following is a Local Transportation Accessibility Survey that they could use or adapt for use. In addition, they may want to poll taxi drivers to determine what their attitudes are toward the handicapped as customers and investigate

whether there are other private or nonprivate agency bus or van services in the community for handicapped persons. A survey of handicapped persons to determine how they get around and what problems they face in doing so would also be helpful. Organizations such as those suggested in Chapter 6 for locating resource persons and government assistance agencies might also help in identifying handicapped persons for such a survey.

LOCAL TRANSPORTATION ACCESSIBILITY SURVEY

City _____ Date _____

Survey conducted by _____

Public Transit Buses

	Yes	*No*
Accommodations for the Elderly and the Physically Disabled not in Wheelchairs		
1. The front and rear doors are wide enough (at least 36 inches) to permit walking apparatus to pass through.	_____	_____
2. The doorwells have:		
a. grip rails	_____	_____
b. lighted steps	_____	_____
c. nonskid surfaces	_____	_____
3. Exit door opens immediately when it encounters an obstruction.	_____	_____
4. Driver identifies bus destination and individual stops for visually impaired riders.	_____	_____
Accommodations for People in Wheelchairs		
1. The bus is equipped with a level change mechanism such as a ramp or a lift.	_____	_____
2. The disabled person can enter and exit the bus without assistance.	_____	_____
3. The disabled person is allowed adequate time to reach a secure location on the bus before it moves away.	_____	_____
4. The secure location can be reached with a minimum of difficulty.	_____	_____
5. There are devices for securing the wheelchair to the bus.	_____	_____

Buses Operated by Public, Private, or Nonprofit Agencies Specifically for the Disabled

	Yes	*No*
1. The use of the bus is not restricted to certain purposes.	_____	_____
2. The fares are no higher than regular bus fares.	_____	_____
3. The buses carry passengers to all destinations served by regular buses.	_____	_____
4. The time required to reach a particular destination is comparable to the time traveled by the regular bus.	_____	_____
5. The buses run during normal service hours.	_____	_____
6. The carrying capacity of the bus service is adequate to meet the demands on its use by disabled persons.	_____	_____

Travel is closely linked to the condition of streets. Disabled persons need to get to and from vehicles. Some of the items in the Building Accessibility Survey, concerning passenger loading zones and accessible routes, are relevant to this concern. But there are other matters affecting general mobility that deserve attention. For example, how many street corners have curb cuts or ramps? Are there bells on traffic lights so the blind can tell when they change? Are street names or other signs large enough to be read by those with visual impairments, or in Braille on corner posts for the blind, or represented by universal symbols for the mentally handicapped?

Students could make up their own survey, following the format of the ones presented here for buildings and transportation, to gather data on hindrances to travel by the handicapped on their community's streets. Like the other information on transportation accessibility, these data could be shared fruitfully with organizations concerned with the handicapped, as well as with local government officials.

EMPLOYMENT

Gainful employment is central to self-reliance, whether one is handicapped or not. But the handicapped face the same problem as other minorities—unemployment rates that are higher than for other groups. And unemployment is higher among the handicapped than among other minorities. According to Kleinfield (1979, p. 144), in 1979, of the handicapped who were qualified to work, between 40 and 50 % were unemployed. And those who do work are often underemployed—that is, they work for low wages at jobs that do not tax their abilities.

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Rehabilitation Amendments of 1978 were intended to cope with this situation, at least partially. The act specifies that employers receiving any federal funds cannot deny jobs to disabled persons solely on the basis of their disability. The regulations for the act provide that "reasonable" modifications in the work environment must be made so that disabled persons can do jobs. Moreover, affirmative action plans to seek out, hire, and promote the handicapped were mandated.

It is important to remember, however, that the Rehabilitation Act applies only to federal agencies and employers receiving federal funds, which excludes many businesses. Some states do have nondiscrimination in employment laws for the handicapped, but not all. Moreover, enforcement of the employment aspects of the Rehabilitation Act was assigned to the Department of Labor, which only reacted to complaints filed with it, rather than actively seeking out violations.

The Rehabilitation Amendments of 1978 provide that any complaint of job discrimination brought under the Rehabilitation Act would be treated as a possible civil rights violation. As a consequence, many of the remedies, procedures, and rights set forth in the Civil Rights Act of 1964 became available to persons whose employment rights had been aggrieved. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission was established to enforce this legislation. But an already overburdened Civil Rights Office lags far behind in disposing of discrimination complaints.

Local Conditions

The point of this chapter, however, is to help students become aware of limitations on the disabled in their own communities. (Employment is posed as a major societal issue in Chapter 9.) Project 6 in Chapter 5 contains two exercises for helping students become aware of employment opportunities, or lack of opportunities, for disabled persons. Those exercises would be an effective point from which to begin an in depth look at employment opportunities for the disabled in the local community.

Selection of the businesses to be surveyed will be an important first step, and will differ depending on the size of the community. In rural, small town settings, all businesses may be contacted. In large urban centers, it will be feasible to contact only a few. Where selection is necessary, it will be important to include both the major employers and a cross section of employers. It will also be vital that you help students contact appropriate persons, such as personnel managers, from whom to obtain information.

Of course, asking the right questions will be crucial to obtaining useful data. As with interviews (see Chapter 6), students must be helped to define carefully their problems and then to phrase questions that will get at pertinent information. Some questions students might consider are:

1. How many disabled workers are employed, and with what disabilities?
2. What jobs do they hold?

3. Was special equipment required before the disabled person could do the job?
4. What are the absenteeism and production records of the disabled workers?
5. Do their disabilities affect workers' opportunities for promotion?

Sheltered workshops often offer employment to disabled persons who are not able to accept regular jobs. Students can contact local associations for the handicapped to inquire about the existence and operation of sheltered workshops in their community. Some questions that students may consider are:

1. What organization operates the workshop?
2. How are funds for the workshop provided?
3. What disabilities do the persons employed in the workshop have?
4. Do disabled persons manage the workshop?
5. What do the persons employed in the workshop do?
6. How much are they paid?

As with transportation accessibility, it will be important for students to obtain the views of disabled persons on job accessibility in the local community. In fact, questions about both could be asked of the same persons once a group is identified.

COMMUNITY ATTITUDES

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the attitudes other people have toward disabled people are often handicapping because they limit their opportunities. Looking at attitudes in the local community can help students understand what it is like to live with handicaps. One way to examine community attitudes toward the disabled is to have students prepare and conduct a community survey.

Surveys must be carefully prepared, carried out, and analyzed if they are to yield worthwhile information. A survey on community attitudes toward the handicapped would be an excellent project for a sociology class, and a good followup to the ideas discussed in Chapter 3. Although means of selecting unbiased samples will need to be worked out, questionnaires could be administered to persons in shopping centers, on main shopping streets, or in the neighborhood of the school on a door to door basis. The questionnaires developed by the students should consist of carefully written items to probe beliefs and feelings about such matters as mainstreaming; making buildings, streets, and transportation accessible; who should provide services to the handicapped (families, government, charities); and employment rights. The results of a well conducted survey might make an interesting article for the local newspaper.

Assistance in defining the problem areas and drawing up questions and alternative responses will be crucial, as will guidance in administering the questionnaires and in summarizing and analyzing the data. The brief discussion here is not meant to imply that surveying attitudes is unimportant. Rather, it is because an adequate treatment would require more space than is available. Most high school students and many junior high students could get manageable assistance from a book such as *Designing Sensible Surveys* (Orlich, 1978). And able students who get involved in survey methodology will find *Improving Interview Method and Questionnaire Design* (Bradburn & Sudman, 1979) helpful.

THE MEDIA

Media are important considerations in living with handicaps for at least two reasons. First, they are part of the environment handicapped persons encounter daily. As with other minorities, the handicapped can find the portrayals of those like themselves to be personally unsatisfactory and bothersome. Secondly, the media undoubtedly shape public attitudes toward the disabled.

It is common to lambast the media for all they do wrong. While there is much room for improvement in their treatment of the handicapped, there is much to applaud as well.

Regular programs on television rarely involve disabled persons in supporting roles, much less as central characters. That is also true of movies except those, such as *The Other Side of the Mountain*, that focus on the person's disability, and often do an excellent job of suggesting the impacts of disabilities and the desire and ability of the disabled to live normal lives.

On television, Longstreet (the blind insurance investigator) and Ironsides (the paraplegic police official) were heroes—but presented as stereotypes who rarely faced the real problems of the disabled. (For example, Ironsides' elevator equipped van always found a handy place to park, and Longstreet had exceptional hearing.)

Movies and television programs often use physical disabilities as signs of evil or strangeness (e.g., villains with limps, eye patches, peg legs, hooks for missing hands, hunchbacks). On the other hand, disabled persons are also often pictured unrealistically as angelic—long suffering, with hearts of gold, and only the purest of motives. Often, too, as in the Mr. Magoo cartoons, disabilities are used as symbols of incompetence or, as in newspaper cartoons, the disabled are treated as buffoons. It is troublesome that on television and in movies the disabled are often portrayed as victims of violent crimes, giving an image of helplessness. Even news reports may tend to heighten stereotyping by mentioning the disabilities of people involved in accidents or crimes. Some argue, too, that advertisements for charities and fund raising telethons suggest both self pity and the desire to be pitied and cared for without self responsibility.

Much that is good can be said about media treatment of the handicapped in recent years. Movies and television programs with disabled persons as central characters, often in sensitive portrayals of coping with handicaps, are more common. Television and newspaper coverage has been given to protests and demonstrations by the disabled, to legislative and court action for the handicapped, and to the Special Olympics and wheelchair marathoners. Well written articles on disabilities are becoming more common in popular magazines. (Helpful discussions of media portrayals can be found in Baskin and Harris, 1977; Barnes, Berrigan, & Biklen, 1978; Bogdan & Biklen, 1977. Each of these sources also discusses the portrayal of the disabled in literature, itself as important area for student analysis.)

The results of examining media to determine the extent to which the disabled are stereotyped—or perhaps equally bad, ignored—could be an important part of an adequately broad picture of living with disabilities. Students might focus on television because its influence is so pervasive. Better yet, some might examine television while others look at local and regional newspapers and others review popular magazines, perhaps bringing their findings, both positive and negative, together in a classroom forum. Questions such as the following might help to guide their examinations, or be used as suggestive for formulating their own questions.

QUESTIONS ABOUT
MAGAZINE AND TELEVISION STORIES

	Yes	*No*
1. Is a disabled person included? If so, the following questions apply.	_____	_____
2. Is the disabled person a main character?	_____	_____
3. Is the disabled person the villain, with the disability used to suggest evilness?	_____	_____
4. Is the disabled person present as "interesting scenery"?	_____	_____
5. Is the disabled person the hero or heroine?	_____	_____
6. Is the presentation of the disability accurate and free of stereotyping?	_____	_____
7. Is the disabled person portrayed as a person to be pitied?	_____	_____
8. Does the disabled person have as much control over important events in his or her life as nondisabled characters do?	_____	_____
9. Does the disabled person appear to lead a normal, satisfying life?	_____	_____
10. Does the disabled person appear to "feel good" about himself or herself?	_____	_____
11. Is the disabled person generally respected by other characters in the story?	_____	_____
12. Is the disabled person self reliant (not unduly helped by others in the story)?	_____	_____
13. Is the disabled person a victim of a physical assault or otherwise victimized, suggesting greater helplessness than likely?	_____	_____
14. Do advertisements contain disabled persons?	_____	_____

QUESTIONS ABOUT NEWS COVERAGE

	Yes	No
1. Are events (including sports) concerning the disabled given coverage appropriate to their importance?	_____	_____
2. Is the commentary overly pitying, overly laudatory, or patronizing?	_____	_____
3. Are disabilities identified when not relevant to the news story? (Are crimes, for example, or acts of model behavior, linked by implication to disabilities?)	_____	_____
4. Are discussions about or comments on disabilities accurate and free of stereotypes?	_____	_____

Students should be encouraged to suggest ways the media could portray the handicapped more adequately. Some students might write their own television plays or advertisements, or prepare news articles that they deem appropriate.

PULLING IT TOGETHER

It is not likely that every student will be involved in all of the data gathering activities suggested in this chapter. There is not ample time in most social studies programs for such classwide participation. And, as with tbe projects in Chapter 5, because of differences in interests and abilities, some students may choose not to be data gatherers, or you may decide that is not a good activity for them.

Those who do gather data on living with disabilities in your community should, however, be encouraged and assisted to share their findings. Such sharing is often not particularly meaningful to students who did not participate in gathering the data. However, if students have been introduced to stereotypes and attitudes and their effects on th handicapped (Chapter 3), have done some simulations to sense what it is like to be disabled (Chapter 4), and had a chance to meet and talk with handicapped persons (Chapter 6), the reports should be of interest.

In some cases, the class may decide that some social action is called for to remediate community hindrances to the disabled. Appropriate actions could include: sharing the results through articles in newspapers, letters to the editor, and calls to "hotline" radio shows; presenting findings to those with power—e.g., the school board, owners or managers of business, the mayor, council, or county commission; circulating petitions calling for policy changes; getting involved in the service and political activities of local associations for the disabled. Deciding whether action would be appropriate and how to proceed would be important points to consider in government and social issues courses.

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8
HANDICAPPED EDUCATION IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES

Our review of textbooks for various social studies courses indicates that the handicapped, handicapism, and the issues of equity being raised by handicapped advocacy groups are practically never mentioned. These important topics can be readily included in your teaching. The simulations, projects, surveys, and uses of resource people suggested in Chapters 3 through 7 can provide the basis for units on the handicapped, as well as for activities and assignments throughout the ongoing curriculum.

It is important that, along with special units of instruction, handicapped studies be integrated into the various social studies courses wherever relevant. Many concepts can be illustrated using the handicapped and handicapism, as you may now be doing with racism and sexism and the civil rights issues they raise. In many instances, the perspectives of particular content areas have especially important contributions to make to the students' understanding of the handicapped, handicapism, and related societal issues.

The purpose of this chapter is to suggest sample points of relevance in typical social studies courses. Our hope is to encourage individual teachers to introduce handicapped education into all social studies courses so that students will develop adequately complex views of disabilities and the issues they raise, and come to see concern with the views and rights of minorities as a pervasive theme in the junior and senior high school social studies curriculum.

ANTHROPOLOGY

Being handicapped, or even disabled, is to some extent a cultural phenomenon. For example, many of what we label "learning disabilities" would not be evident in preliterate, agrarian societies lacking formal schooling and reliance on reading and formal mathematics skills. And in some societies, those with disabilities are venerated. For instance, epileptic seizures have been regarded as signs of mystical power. Cross cultural studies and functional analyses of culture can help students to understand that disabilities and handicaps can be culturally determined.

The methodology of anthropology can be applied in handicappd studies, too. Field work projects in ethnography—the description of cultures—can be carried out by students on a limited basis. It has, for example, been claimed that there is a culture of the handicapped (probably more appropriately—subcultures among groups of handicapped persons), with its own values, norms, and mores, much as there is a teenage culture. Testing the hypothesis of a "handicapped culture" using anthropological methods of participant observation could be an excellent learning experience for many students.

Values and value systems are a major area of study by anthropologists. To have students analyze the values of American culture as they influence the treatment of the disabled, and the views of the disabled of themselves, would be an important exercise.

Values do change, and it appears that our culture has undergone major change in the last decade, change that is continuing. Cultural change—why and how it occurs, and the extent to which it has been real or illusionary in our own society—is itself an important topic for students. It would be particularly instructive for students to

examine cultural change vis-á-vis the handicapped and other minority groups. Are the basic political values of the American culture inconsistent with some subcultural and personal values? Are the recent civil rights movements (ethnic, feminist, handicapped) changing subcultural and personal values to be more consistent with basic cultural values? Is the handicapped civil rights movement, and the resulting legislation and court decisions, changing the American culture? Or, is the meaning of American values being amplified rather than changed? Such questions can be fruitfully addressed from the perspective of anthropology.

Anthropologists have long recognized the important interactions between culture and language, and the importance of language in shaping thought. Cultures of societies dependent on rice as a dietary mainstay will have a large number of words for describing varieties of rice; and, consequently, members on the society will see rice more complexly than those, for example, in our country who see only "rice." Investigations of the cultural origins of our language about the disabled and handicapped, and how that language shapes our perspective on the handicapped, would be a fruitful area of study. This linguistic approach would complement the study of cultural stereotypes.

Anthropology has a major contribution to make to the students' understanding of the way in which culture influences the situation of the disabled, as well as one's own views toward what is handicapping and toward the handicapped.

ECONOMICS

Many of the issues arising from handicapism and the handicapped civil rights movement are economic in nature or related to economics. Most disabled persons have a strong desire to be gainfully employed. Like any of us, they relish the personal satisfaction of being productive. Employment also provides the means by which to live independently which, for the disabled, may involve high costs for attendants and/or orthopedic aids and their maintenance. At the same time, employers have not always been eager to hire the disabled. And, some have thought the costs of educating and training the disabled to be employable are too high. All of this suggests several points of contact with economics courses, particularly microeconomics.

Economics is concerned with the allocation of scarce resources to meet ever expanding needs. A question, then, that can be raised in economics is whether it is wise to allocate resources to the more expensive education of the disabled. In this sense, education can be treated as a human capital investment. The question is whether, in economic terms, the investment is sound.

The consideration of education for the disabled as an investment can be used to introduce students to cost-benefit analysis. Costs in excess of those for educating "regular" students should be considered, or else it is assumed that the disabled are not deserving of the basic education afforded their nondisabled peers. Deciding what costs should be included (e.g., additional salaries of teachers and other staff, building requirements, equipment, transportation) and what the dollar amounts are for different disabilities, as well as the overall cost of educating the disabled, could be challenging assignments for students. Students can also gain from involvement in determining the benefits, usually represented by earnings gained. To the private sector, benefits will include increased purchasing by the disabled and possibly lower taxes for care of the handicapped. For the government, benefits will include increased personal taxes (income and sales), increased corporate profits taxes, and decreased institutionalization costs and maintenance payments (welfare).

Cost-benefit analysis also provides the opportunity to consider the difficulty of assessing intangible benefits such as increases in equality of opportunity and protection of the right to personal development and security. A relevant concept is "social goods"—goods and services produced because they will benefit society as a whole or enhance the rights of some citizens. (Besides public education, included would be highways and libraries. Students can be challenged to suggest others.)

The analysis should also introduce students to different cost-benefit indices. Should the index be the net benefit (the difference between total costs and total benefits); the benefit-cost ratio (the present value of benefits per unit of cost); the annual rate of return (the annual percentage return per unit of cost); the annual rate of return (the annual percentage return per unit of cost); or the pay-back period (the time needed for the accumulated value of benefits to exceed the present value of the costs); or some combination?

Questions about the efficient use of resources can also be raised. In the free enterprise model,

is there room for noneconomic decisions, i.e., decisions based on noneconomic factors such as stereotypes about the disabled? Students could investigate the work efficiency and the dependability of the disabled, as well as the various sorts of work, beyond the usual stereotypes, for example, of blind persons as piano tuners, which the disabled can perform. Cost-benefit analysis can be applied here, too. Costs to the employer include special equipment (students can investigate the types and costs), building modifications, and hiring personnel. Benefits might include increased efficiency less time lost.

The intervention of government in the economic sector through the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, which regulates the hiring practices of employers doing business with the government, also raises questions about the free enterprise model which could be fruitfully considered by students.

If students can be helped to understand the economic basis for many of the problems which disabled persons face and to apply economic analysis to policy proposals related to ameliorating the life conditions of disabled persons, economics will have made a major contribution to handicapped education.

GOVERNMENT AND CIVICS

For many years, the role of government was largely to provide institutional services for the handicapped. In recent years, that role has changed as advocates of rights for the handicapped have used the political process to bring about social change. The handicapped rights movement, like the Black civil rights movement and the equality for women movement, provides an excellent context for studying government and civics. How can individual citizens affect government policy? Or, how does one develop and use power in order to obtain the support of government authority on an issue? How essential are organized interest groups to the political decision making process? What are the respective roles of legislative bodies (city councils, state legislatures, Congress), executives (mayors, governors, the President), and the courts (local, state, and federal) in defining and protecting civil rights? What is the role of the "good citizen"?

The treatment of the handicapped also provides an excellent basis for study of the structure of government because such a broad range of functions and roles can be illustrated. The early custodial period was followed by use of the courts to define and promote rights, by pressure on Congress and state legislators that has resulted in legislation defining and implementing rights, and finally by the provision of a broad range of services through the administrative branch. Table 1 presents a sample of litigation and legislation significant for handicapped persons.

Perhaps one of the most widely misunderstood aspects of American government is the role of the courts in policy making. During the 20th century, minorities have capitalized on the Constitutional provision of a judicial system to protect individual and minority rights (in contrast with the predominantly majority rule functions of the legislative and executive branches). This was, of course, the strategy of the handicapped rights movement, which provides excellent opportunities for study of the exercise of judicial power. Several publications can be helpful because they review the case history and relate the handicapped civil rights movement to earlier and parallel cases dealing with racial discrimination (e.g., Singletary, Collings, & Dennis, 1977; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1978; Weintraub, Abeson, Ballard, & LaVor, 1976).

Excellent opportunities for examination of the legislative process are also provided. Copies of the fundamental legislation—The Architectural Barriers Acts of 1968 and 1976, The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Amendments of 1978, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975—can be obtained from the U.S. Government Printing Office in Washington, D.C., or from your federal Representative or Senator. These can be studied fruitfully by your students, as can the regulations to implement the legislation (which can be obtained in the same way). The importance of administrative regulations is emphasized by the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, because the act was unenforceable until the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare finally produced the regulations, under much pressure from handicapped advocates, in 1977. Use of magazines and newspaper accounts by students to study the protests and lobbying that led to enactment of the various acts, as well as to the Rehabilitation regulations, would be an excellent activity in government and civics courses. Many questions about the role of the citizen and of government in a democratic society could be posed and considered.

TABLE 1
Key Court Cases and Legislation
Establishing Rights for Disabled Persons

Court Cases*

Brown v. *Board of Education* (1954): The equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment protects a class of persons (a racial minority in this case) from denial of equal educational opportunity.

Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. *Pennsylvania* (1971): Mentally retarded children have a right to an appropriate free public education.

Mills v. *D.C. Board of Education* (1972): All handicapped children have a right to appropriate free public education.

Larry P. v. *Riles* (1972): Assessment instruments for special education placement must be appropriate to the individual. (IQ test scores are inadequate alone for placing Blacks in classess for mentally retarded.)

Carroll et al. v. *Cobb et al.* (1974): Mentally retarded residents of a state school are eligible to vote if they can answer the questions asked of all potential voters.

Lau v. *Nichols* (1974): Section 601 of the 1964 Civil Rights Act provides a right to private suit if racial discrimination is alleged in a federally assisted program.

O'Connor v. *Donaldson* (1975): A state cannot confine persons involuntarily if they are not dangerous to themselves or others.

Lloyd et al. v. *Regional Transportation Authority* (1977): Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 allows private suit for redress of wrongs because its wording is similar to Section 601 of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. (A case involving the University of Texas, before the U.S. Supreme Court in 1980, raises the private suit issue. Involved is lack of provision of a sign language interpreter for a deaf graduate student.)

Legislation**

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 (Smith-Fess Act, P.L. 66–236): Rehabilitation services for the disabled to be provided jointly by the state and federal governments.

Social Security Act of 1935 (P.L. 74–271): Gave P.L. 66–236 permanent status. P.L. 74–271 amended over the years to provide assistance to the disabled.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Amendments of 1943 (P.L. 78–113) *and 1954* (P.L. 83–565): Extended services to the mentally ill and retarded and supported research and training of professional personnel.

The Professional Training Act of 1958 (P.L. 85–926): Provides funds to higher education to train teachers of the mentally retarded.

The Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Health Centers Construction Act of 1963 (P.L. 88–164): Provides for training of professional personnel to serve those with handicapping conditions other than mental retardation. Research and demonstration projects in the education of handicapped children.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 (P.L. 89–10): Provides broad scale aid to education, especially the educationally disadvantaged.

* There has been, and continues to be, a myriad of court cases directly or indirectly affecting the rights of disabled persons. The ones in this table are only sample highlights. Moreover, one implication has been selected from each complex case. For other cases and more detail, see Bowe (1968), Singletary, Collings, and Dennis (1977), and Turnbull and Turnbull (1979).

** All of the many laws relevant to the disabled could not be listed here. Also, one or two highlights have been abstracted from complex acts. For more detail, see Weintraub, Abeson, Ballard, and LaVor (1976) and Gearhart (1980).

Title IV of ESEA, 1966 (P.L. 89–750): Established the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped and National Advisory Committee on Handicapped Children.

The Architectural Barriers Act of 1968 (P.L. 90–480): Public facilities built, based, or remodeled with federal dollars to be accessible to the disabled. No provision for enforcement.

The Education of the Handicapped Act of 1969 (P.L. 91–230): Consolidated existing legislation for the handicapped in one section, Title VI, of ESEA.

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P.L. 93–112): Handicapped persons are not to be discriminated against in any program receiving federal financial assistance (Section 504). Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board established. Regulations not signed until 1977.

The Education Amendments of 1974 (P.L. 93–380): Extended P.L. 91–230. States directed to protect rights of handicapped children and their parents in school placement and to educate handicapped children in the "mainstream" of education to the extent possible.

The Housing and Community Development Act of 1974 (P.L. 93–383): Provides federal support for alternative housing for disabled people.

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94–142): Handicapped children to have free public education, appropriate to their needs, and in the least restrictive environment possible.

The Architectural Barriers Act Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94–541): Mandatory wording substituted from permissive wording of P.L. 90–480. Coverage expanded.

The Tax Reform Act of 1976 (P.L. 94– 455): Provides tax relief to businessmen for renovations to remove barriers to the disabled.

The Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1978 (P.L. 95–602): Extends vocational rehabilitation for the handicapped, services for "independent living," and research on prevention and rehabilitation on disabilities.

A look at the list in the Appendix of governmental agencies that provide services to the handicapped also will give an indication of the fruitfulness of using the handicapped as a focal point for considering the scope of modern government.

In short, efforts to gain equality of opportunity for the handicapped have relied heavily on various political-governmental institutions. Those efforts and the results provide an entree to the study of government which is current and has human interest, allowing the consideration of fundamental questions about the role and functions of government, about the political process, and about citizen participation.

PSYCHOLOGY

Psychology has much to offer to the understanding of handicapism and its effects. Stereotypes, prejudice, and attitudes are psychological concepts. Their study in psychology should include examples from and application to treatment of the disabled and handicapped, as well as to ethnic groups and women.

Many introductory psychology courses deal with personal emotional adjustment. Students can be encouraged to consider the adjustment problems that may accompany disabilities. They can also be encouraged to consider implications for the attitudes of the handicapped toward themselves, which are often cited as a major limiting factor in their lives. For example, disabled persons may face many frustrations, and psychologists speak of learned helplessness resulting from a series of repeated frustrations and defeats.

Learning theory, a common topic in psychology courses, is also relevant. How do handicapped people (like other minorities) learn to accept limited views of themselves and their potential—or, conversely, to have positive expectations about what they can do and accomplish? Reinforcement theory (to what contingencies are reinforcers often tied for the disabled?) could, for example, be applied fruitfully here.

In Chapter 4, we noted that it is difficult to construct simulation activities for emotional disturbances. The personality theory and abnormal psychology—the study of mental illness, including neuroses and psychoses—components of psychology courses can contribute a great deal to students' understanding of emotional disturb-

ance as a disability that can have major handicapping effects. Attitudes toward the emotionally disturbed that contribute to the handicapping conditions are also an important topic. Introductory psychology courses often deal with the senses, providing excellent opportunities to deal with visual, auditory, and tactile impairments as handicaps.

The psychological concept of the self fulfilling prophecy can also be appropriately illustrated with and applied to the disabled and handicapped. Not only are handicapped persons influenced to act as others expect and predict they will, but nondisabled persons tend to interpret the behavior of the handicapped according to those expectations.

The measurement and study of attitudes has been a long standing concern of psychologists. Attitudes toward the handicapped would be an appropriate topic of study. Also, helping students to develop instruments to assess community attitudes toward the disabled, as suggested in Chapters 5 and 7, could be an important contribution of a psychology course.

Psychological assessment has another important implication for handicapped education. Much of the conception of mental retardation is based on IQ as measured with intelligence tests. A number of interrelated matters should be dealt with: The validity of such tests as predictors of school performance; the factors that affect performance on them (such as ethnic culture and type of disability); the correlations of IQ scores with important nonacademic behaviors.

Psychological factors are at the root of much handicapism. If the disabled and handicapped are made integral parts of psychology courses in the illustration and application of concepts, the contributions toward the goals of handicapped education stated in Chapter 2 could be great.

SOCIOLOGY

Sociology, too, has much to offer to students' understanding of the status of the handicapped in our society, because so much of what happens to disabled persons depends on social structures. For example, the concept of roles (expected behaviors) has powerful implications for handicapped education. What roles have traditionally been assigned to the handicapped in this society? To what extent has an emphasis on dependency influenced the views of the disabled toward themselves and their potential? To what extent has, and does, acceptance of the dependency role influence the attitudes of the nondisabled toward the disabled, turning disabilities into handicaps? To what extent have the resulting expectations both limited the alternatives offered the disabled and contributed to resentment toward disabled persons who refused to stay within the traditional role? Helping students to examine parallels among the experiences of ethnic minorities, women, and the disabled could provide fruitful insights.

The influences of values and value systems on social behavior are important aspects of sociology relevant to handicapped education. Examination of values in our society as they affect the handicapped would be an excellent exercise for students. For example, is equality of opportunity a social value, as well as a political value? How do our values in regard to physical and mental beauty and prowess influence our views of and reactions to the disabled?

Students could also consider the norms, mores, and folkways of our society as they relate to the handicapped. For example, to what extent do our attitudes toward the handicapped reflect norms based on fundamental values, mores stemming from less basic values, or folkways that are conventions based on preferences? To what extent do folkways about manners and neatness, for example, influence our reactions to physically disabled persons, such as someone who drools uncontrollably? Do our mores about sexual relations have an impact on the potential for marriage between nondisabled and disabled persons?

Social change is also a frequent subject of sociology courses. In particular, the handicapped civil rights movement qualifies as a social movement—a collective effort to achieve (or block) social change (to challenge the status quo), often operating outside of conventional societal channels for bringing about change. Understanding the factors that promote or discourage social change, the methods that have been successful in bringing about change, and the parallels between the handicapped rights movement and other social movements will give students an important perspective on what may otherwise appear to be irrational protest actions by disabled persons.

The various investigative methodologies of sociologists, which are frequently discussed in sociology textbooks, also have much potential for handicapped education. In Chapter 7, we sug-

gested that conducting surveys is an excellent way for students to learn about the status of the disabled in their communities. Students doing projects such as those suggested in Chapter 5 could also use sociological methodologies: participant observation in situations involving interaction between disabled and nondisabled persons (for example, in mainstreamed classrooms, special education resource centers, on public transportation); unobtrusive observation of the behavior of disabled and nondisabled persons in various social settings; longitudinal or cross sectional studies of community values, norms, and mores in regard to the disabled; case studies of disabled persons (e.g., a case study of a newly mainstreamed student, or a handicapped student seeking employment); even the *ex post facto* analysis of data (in regard, for example, to the employment of handicapped persons in local businesses). Teaching the assumptions, the methodological skills, and interpretive cautions of these various methods in their application to handicapped studies would be an important ingredient of a sociology course.

Generally, handicaps and their effects must be understood as social phenomena. Sociology has considerable contributions to make to students' understanding of the handicapped and the conditions that influence the fulfillment of their aspirations.

U.S. AND WORLD HISTORY

Widespread awareness of the disabled and concern for their basic human rights are relatively recent phenomena in American society. Not too long ago, the effects of disabilities were not generally appreciated. Moreover, severely disabled persons, especially those with real or apparent mental disabilities, were frequently taken to be sources of embarrassment, even shame. Such persons often spent most of their lives in institutions or hidden away at home, completely segregated from the mainstream of society.

At the same time, there are important historical antecedents to the present concern for the disabled. Recent legislation promoting the rights of the disabled has similar roots to those of the civil rights movements for ethnic minorities and women. The *Brown* v. *Board of Education* decision in 1954 not only reflected the historical development of the concept that in education separate could not be equal, but laid the foundation for "right to education" cases that helped set the context for P.L. 94–142, the Education for All Handicappd Children Act of 1975. And, individuals, such as Itard, Sequin, Montessori, Howe, Braille, and Gallaudet, who over the years have stood for humane treatment of the disabled, have, along with major disabled historical figures such as Franklin D. Roosevelt and John F. Kennedy, who have shown that the disabled are not necessarily handicapped, also been important precursors to the present state of events. So has, for example, the public recognition of mentally handicapped relatives by John F. Kennedy and Hubert H. Humphrey as part of their support for improving the status of the disabled—including the establishment of the President's Committee on Mental Retardation. By the same token, the horrible institutional treatment of many of those identified, sometimes erroneously, as mentally retarded is part of the background of the current movement typified by the formation of the National Association for Retarded Citizens in the 1950's and then later of groups such as the American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities (see the Appendix).

Clearly, if students are to understand handicapism and its effects on equal opportunity for the handicapped in our society, as well as the thrusts behind current policies, they must be given an historical perspective. This will not be easy in either U.S. or world history courses, as handicaps are not frequent topics of textbooks for either. For that reason, we have provided in the References at the end of this chapter a rather extensive list of source materials that you might use to prepare material on handicapism and equal opportunity for use in your history classes. These same materials, and the sources listed in many of them, will also be useful references for student papers on historical antecedents of the current status of the handicapped in our society.

Placing contemporary issues and policies in historical perspective is, of course, not the only function of history nor the only contribution of history to handicapped studies. An important contribution, and an interesting subject for students, is the comparative study of the treatment of the disabled throughout the history of Western and Eastern societies. For example, it has been within little more than a century that the predominant explanations for mental and physical impairments have changed from supernatural (i.e., caused by God) to naturalistic (e.g., the result of genetic disorders, prenatal chemical imbalances). Considering the reasons for that change

could be part of the study of the status of science and philosophy, medicine, and religion in ancient Mediterranean societies, in Medieval and Renaissance Europe, and in more modern times. Comparisons of dominant ideas during comparable time periods in Islamic and Far Eastern countries would provide able students with an extended conception of historical change, as well as a sense of historical complexity.

Biographical studies are also an important part of many history courses. Project 9 in Chapter 5 suggests the names of several pioneers in the understanding and correction of disabilities who would be appropriate subjects for biographical reports by students. Project 10 includes the names of noted historical figures who overcame disabilities in rising to greatness. Writing biographies of such persons would help students to gain a sense of the personal lives of historical figures and to understand that they are not as simple as they are often cast in textbooks.

Students could be involved, too, in the writing of history. For example, histories of state legislation on the handicapped could be written using state records of legislative actions, newspaper reports, even interviews with political activists and legislators. Or local histories could be written—using newspaper files and interviews with current and retired government officials, members of organizations for the handicapped, and handicapped persons—on the treatment of the handicapped or on a specific institution, such as a home for the mentally retarded. The Foxfire project in Rabun Gap, Georgia, in which students used the reflections of their elderly neighbors and relatives, suggests the potential excitement for students of doing local histories. (If interested, you may wish to pursue the *Foxfire Books,* published by Doubleday & Company.) Students also could write a history of the treatment of the handicapped in our time, as it might be written by an historian at some future time.

The question is not whether history courses can contribute to student understanding of the handicapped and handicapism, but to what extent class time can be devoted to related topics, and the handicapped and handicapism used as concepts in making the types of student assignments that are common in history.

THE ANALYSIS OF TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks are the basic tool of instruction in social studies. Persons concerned with racism and sexism recognized years ago that textbooks could have subtle influences on students. In many cases, what was not said or included in illustrations seemed as important as what was said or included. Numerous textbook analyses have been done looking for racist or sexist content (for example, inappropriate terminology and stereotyped views), the space devoted to racism or sexism as legitimate topics of studies, and the extent to which photos and other illustrations were racist or sexist because of the roles portrayed (e.g., women always as housekeepers; Blacks as subservient) or because ethnic minorities and women were simply not shown, suggesting their nonexistence. As a result of the analyses, and the positive stands of organizations such as the National Council for the Social Studies, social studies textbooks have come to include ethnic minorities and women in ways that more adequately reflect their importance in society and suggest to students their potentials for human development.

Although formal textbook anaylses are not yet available, our perusal of social studies textbooks indicates that generally the disabled and handicapped are in the position that ethnic minorities and women were in earlier years. There are few illustrations of the disabled, much less photos of them performing "normal" social, political, and occupational roles. Handicapism and the civil rights of the handicapped are infrequently dealt with. That is one reason why we thought it important to include a chapter in this reference text which suggested relevant points of study in social studies courses: In most instances, you will have to introduce handicapped examples, make applications to the handicapped, and propose relevant activities. The textbooks do not do so.

We believe that, as has been done with racism and sexism, criteria for the selection of textbooks should also include their treatment of handicapism and handicapped issues. In the long run, positive changes in texts will occur from that sort of pressure. In the meantime, your own analysis of the textbooks purchased by the school districts for your courses can provide an important basis for deciding when and how to integrate handicapped education into your courses.

Textbook analysis can also be an excellent learning activity for students. After some study of handicapism, analyzing how textbooks treat the disabled can provide strong insights into the social nature of handicaps. Such an analysis could be the basis of action-type projects by the

students—such as expressing concern to the school board or writing to the publishers about the need for adequate treatment of the handicapped in textbooks.

The following set of questions is meant to suggest the types of queries that you, and your students, might address in analyzing social studies textbooks. The questions are organized into two general categories—pictorial representation and content—although there is some overlap.

Pictorial Representation

Proportional

1. Are disabled/handicapped persons represented in an adequate percentage of photographs and other pictorial illustrations to give students an accurate impression of their numbers and proportions in society (from 10 to 20%), recognizing that some disabilities, such as emotional disturbance and mental retardation, are difficult to depict pictorially without using stereotypic images.
2. Are the various disabilities which can be depicted represented in adequate proportions?
3. Where possible, are varying degrees of each disability presented?

Descriptive Adequacy

1. Are the pictorial presentations free of stereotypes (e.g., the blind as beggars or otherwise pitiful, the mentally retarded as unkempt, all disabled children as cherubic)?
2. Are disabled/handicapped persons shown in activities similar to those of nondisabled persons?
   a. Are they shown only in custodial institutions, special education settings, or with groups of similarly disabled persons?
   b. Are they shown interacting with nondisabled prsons in normal settings?
   c. Are they shown in a variety of social, political, and occupational roles—as parents, workers, businessmen, politicians?
   d. Are they shown participating in a range of recreational activities (such as blind or cerebral palsied bowlers, paraplegic wheelchair basketball players, or marathoners with artificial limbs)?

Content

Amount

1. Is there any mention of the disabled/handicapped in the text? Are those terms included in the index?
2. If the disabled/handicapped are mentioned, does the discussion take up a sufficient proportion of the text (e.g., more than an occasional sentence; several paragraphs and some sections) to indicate to the reader: (a) the proportion of the population which is handicapped and (b) the serious issues of handicapism and denial of equity raised by treatment of the handicapped in our society?

Conceptual

1. Does the text make clear through its content that the disabled/handicappd can usually act in as broad a range of roles as the nondisabled?
   a. Is the broad range of occupational roles, especially with prosthetic devices and other aids, which are feasible for the handicapped made clear?
   b. Is the ability of disabled/handicapped persons to lead independent lives made clear (e.g., that a large proportion of the adult mentally retarded can be self sufficient)?
   c. Are the disabled/handicapped discussed in terms of normal social-family participation?
2. In history textbooks:
   a. Is the status of the disabled in the past discussed?
   b. If so, is the discussion accurate?
   c. Are the disabilities of major historical figures mentioned?
3. In government and civics texts:
   a. Are legislation and court decisions in regard to the handicapped mentioned?
   b. Are the handicaoped mentioned in discussions of political interest groups?
   c. Is the government's administrative role in promoting equity for the handicapped discussed?
4. In anthropology, economics, psychology, and sociology textbooks:
   a. Are the disabled/handicapped used to illustrate major concepts?
   b. Are major concepts applied to understanding of the handicapped, handicapism, and handicappd issues?
5. In problems of democracy, American problems, or other issues textbooks, are handicapism and equity for the handicapped treated as major problems facing our society?
6. Are labels for the disabled used properly and do discussions avoid stereotyping the handicapped?

These questions are not all inclusive, and you will undoubtedly decide on others as you think about handicapped education and examine textbooks. The application of such a set of questions is, we believe, an important step in teaching about handicapism and the handicapped, as well as in the development of a general atmosphere which will encourage textbook authors and publishers to be more sensitive to this important minority.

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9
HANDICAPISM AND EQUITY FOR THE HANDICAPPED AS SOCIETAL ISSUES

Helping students learn to grapple with decisions about the issues facing society and about their own roles in the resolution of the issues have been long standing objectives of social studies educators. To this point, we have presented a general justification for including handicapped education in social studies, suggested activities and projects, discussed the use of resource persons to increase students' understanding of handicapping conditions and the restricted environment which disabled persons often encounter, and proposed some ways in which the handicapped and handicapism are relevant to various social studies courses. In this chapter, we turn to the issues related to handicapism and the handicapped civil rights movement.

Because concern with citizenship education pervades the social studies curriculum, the consideration of issues and the development of students' decision making and participation skills has never been relegated to special problems or issues courses, as important as they are to the overall social studies program. The struggle by handicapped Americans to remove the social, political, and physical barriers that often keep them from living constructive, independent lives ought not be an exception. The issues raised should be addressed throughout the social studies curriculum, not only in a course or two.

A SAMPLING OF ISSUES

Those concerned with the rights of the handicapped have centered much of their advocacy in the government domain. But they have brought direct pressure on institutions, such as businesses and universities, to act to promote equality of opportunity without government coercion. And, of course, because handicapism takes much of its form and expression at the personal level, advocates of handicapped rights have argued that individual citizens have an obligation to reassess their own actions toward disabled persons in light of the basic values of the society.

So, public issues in regard to the treatment of the handicapped involve social, economic, and personal welfare problems as well as cutting across the personal, institutional, and governmental domains. The nature of the problems and, therefore, of the issues, will change over time as society and the expectations of the handicapped change. Consequently, what follows is a sampling of issues. The intent is to stimulate awareness. We first discuss a problem area briefly, and then list some issues stemming from the problem. We only sketch out the general dimensions, as to do otherwise would require a volume in itself. Books such as Bowe's *Handicapping America* and *Rehabilitating America*, Kleinfield's *The New Majority*, and Cohen's *Special People*, as well as the many articles that are becoming more frequently available, can help you and your students to seek out details of the issues you decide to pursue.

Employment

Jobs are at the heart of many of the concerns of handicapped persons. Like other persons, the handicapped want to lead independent, productive lives. Being independent depends on having an income. In our society, too, productivity tends to be defined in economic terms—working and earning an income. For the handicapped, income often has to be sufficient to pay for

prostheses and special care that can free them from dependence. For example, quadriplegics have very expensive equipment and attendant needs.

Some handicapped persons receive help through government programs. But if they earn above a minimum amount, their government support is taken away. So the handicapped may find themselves in a productivity-independence dilemma. Lack of employment opportunities, on the one hand, and the prospects of losing important support if they do become employed, on the other, create problems that underlie many employment related issues (for specific examples, see Kleinfield, 1979, and Bowe, 1978).

1. Should employers give handicapped persons equal consideration for jobs? (*Note*: Data on the reliability and productivity of disabled workers are relevant here and to several of the following questions. The data could be used as part of a cost-benefit analysis.)
2. Should employers give special consideration to the handicapped in filling positions?
3. Should laws be passed to make it mandatory that companies doing buisiness with the government (local, state, federal) be nondiscriminatory in their hiring practices toward the handicapped? (*Note:* This is a historical question in regard to the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and its 1977 regulations.)
4. Should such a law be passed for all businesses, regardless of whether or not they do business with the government?
5. Should companies doing business with the government (local, state, federal) be legally obligated to make necessary modifications in facilities and provide the necessary modifications in facilities and provide the necessary equipment so that handicapped persons can be employed? (*Note*: This was required by the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.)
6. Should handicapped people receive the same pay as nonhandicapped persons doing the same jobs?
7. Should the limits be raised on the money handicapped persons can earn before government (federal, state, local) benefits are cut off?

Education

In our society, education is still viewed as an important factor in personal growth and in employment opportunity. The handicapped argue that they have been denied both personal growth and good jobs because of the lack of accessibility of education to them. These problems were addressed by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94–142), as well as by the Rehabilitation Act of 1973—important documents for students to be aware of and to read. In essence, the two acts provide that at the elementary and secondary education level, students have a right to education in the least restrictive environment with an educational program geared to their particular needs. Access to facilities, special equipment, and necessary staff are to be provided as necessary and reasonable.

Colleges and universities receiving federal funds are also to have accessible facilities and to provide necessary learning aids, such as interpreters for the severely hearing impaired.

Some have argued that although this legislation and related court decisions address the problems of the handicapped, they are creating financial problems for schools. There is no question that education for the handicapped is more expensive (an excellent subject for a student project). Several issues revolve around what costs are "reasonable" and who should pay them?

1. Should the Education for All Handicapped Children Act have been passed?
2. Should the provisions of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 apply to public schools and colleges and universities receiving federal funds?
3. Should private schools, colleges, and universities provide accessible facilities and the assistance necessary for attendance by the handicapped?
4. Should private schools, colleges, and universities be required by law to provide accessible facilities and the assistance necessary for attendance by the handicapped, even if they receive no federal or other government funds?
5. Should programs for nonhandicapped students be cut back if necessary to provide equal educational opportunities for handicapped students?

Health and Other Assistance

For many handicapped persons, such as paraplegics, daily life presents many challenges. Their mechanical and electronic aids are not only expensive, they require specialized servicing. And to be without them for long can be life threatening, not just inconvenient. Moreover, many of the severely handicapped often face other health problems related directly to their disabling condition or the the immobility it imposes on them. For paraplegics, for example, bladder and kidney infections are an omnipresent threat; for the quadriplegic, laying in bed poses skin problems that can take on serious proportions. Expense, even for medical insurance, and the lack of availability of services pose major problems. What should be done to assist the handicapped with these problems involves a number of important issues.

1. Should the government provide medical insurance at reduced rates for the handicapped?
2. Should institutions with medical plans include the handicapped in their plans even though it raises the insurance costs for other members? (In 1980, the Board of Pensions of the Lutheran Church in America proposed excluding from its health benefits plan those pastors, seminarians, and dependents with pre-existing handicaps that would indicate a higher probability of death.)
3. Should governments (federal, state, local) provide financial support for local "independent living" centers where the handicapped can receive special assistance with obtaining and repairing aids, as well as employment and other assistance?
4. Do companies who produce aids for the handicapped have special obligations in terms of quality control, keeping prices down, and providing service on their products?

Public Facilities

Having access to the public facilities for normal political and social activities is important to the handicapped. Some of these facilities are government owned—courthouses, post offices, subways and buses, streets, sports arenas, theaters, music halls. Others are privately owned—stores, office buildings, restaurants, theaters. The Architectural Barriers Act of 1968—a precursor to the more extensive Rehabilitation Act of 1973—required that public facilities built with federal funds be accessible to disabled persons. The problems faced by disabled persons as they attempt to use public facilities raise many issues.

1. Should all parts of all government buildings be accessible to the handicapped (including sufficiently wide halls and doorways, useable restrooms, Braille elevator buttons, audio elevator signals, rampways and elevators in sports arenas, theaters, music halls)?
2. Should all streets have cuts or ramps at curbs, audio signals at traffic lights, large sized print on street and direction signs?
3. Should all buses and subways be accessible to the handicapped? (*Note:* By federal order of 1977, buses were to be produced by 1979 with floors 22 inches off the ground and with ramps. Also, automation of subways poses problems of convenience and

safety for the handicapped who need help to pay fares or depend on personnel for protection from personal attacks and protection from mishap, for example, if blind or during a seizure.)

4. Should government provide round the clock, home to destination, taxi-type service for the handicapped for whom taxis and other public transportation are not available or manageable?
5. Should owners or builders of stores, office buildings, and motels and hotels provide for access to their facilities by the disabled?
6. Should the owners of stores, office buildings, and motels and hotels be legally obligated to provide access for the disabled?
7. Should restaurant hosts or hostesses and those in other entertainment places always admit and seat handicapped persons regardless of the discomfort or inconvenience to others?
8. Should the owners of restaurants, movie theaters, and other places of entertainment provide physical access and facilities for the handicapped and establish a policy of unlimited entrance?
9. Should accessibility, entrance to, and equivalent seating for the handicapped in restaurants, movie theaters, and other entertainment places be provided for by law (federal, state, local)?
10. What should be the obligation of private citizens to provide access for the handicapped? For example, if the state law provides (as it does in California) that public buildings with 10,000 or more square feet of area must be accessible to wheelchairs, should builders construct buildings to 9,999 square feet to avoid compliance?

Family

Family ties are taken for granted by many people. Certainly, nondisabled people take it for granted that the decision whether to marry and, if so, whether to have children, is their own. Not so for the handicapped. Some states have laws banning marriage by persons with epilepsy. Even more will not allow mentally retarded persons to marry. There have been instances in our history of judges ordering mentally retarded persons sterilized, and a policy of sterilization is still advocated by some. There are occasional custody cases in which the state challenges the ability of disabled parents, such as mentally retarded persons or those with all limbs missing, to raise their own children. Yet mentally retarded parents have raised families, often of normal intelligence, as have parents with physical impairment. Shirley Cohen (1977, p. 74) tells of a deaf couple who raised four children, all deaf, to live full, normal lives. Some disabilities are genetic, with greater likelihood of occurrence if present in the parents. "Normal" people also carry the genes for disabilities in their children. And, disabled children can mean additional strain—psychological and financial—on families. A number of related issues deserve attention by students.

1. Should parents be totally responsible for the rearing and financial support of their handicapped children?
2. Should government (federal, state, local) provide funds for the special care often needed by disabled children (doctors, hospitalization, prosthetics, nursing)?
3. When care cannot be "reasonably" provided in the home, should government provide institutions for care of the handicapped?
4. Should government provide agencies to assist parents in the day to day rearing of their handicapped children in their homes?
5. Should disabled persons have the right to marry? If not for some, how shall it be decided who ought to be denied that right? (Degree of disability, whether institutionalized, financial independence?)
6. Should disable persons have the right to have children? If not for some, how shall it be decided who ought to be denied that right? (Degree of disability, likelihood of genetic disorder, whether institutionalized, financial independence?)
7. Should the government have the right to remove children with normal potential from the homes of nonistitutionalized mentally retarded parents?

Housing

The shelter that most of us take for granted as a fundamental right is more than a roof over our heads. Sometimes even obtaining a roof presents problems for the disabled. Unless specially ordered, houses are, for example, rarely built to accommodate persons in wheelchairs. Nor are apartment buildings. Moreover, some landlords are reluctant to rent to the disabled, fearing that

the blind or severely hearing impaired may not be able to care for themselves, that the quadriplegic may be left without a source of income to pay rent, or that the mentally retarded may not be competent at upkeep. These conditions raise serious societal issues.

1. Should developers build homes accessible to the disabled?
2. Should those who rent homes and apartments voluntarily modify them to be accessible to the handicapped?
3. Should government (local, state, federal) regulate the building of homes and apartments to guarantee accessibility?
4. Should government (local, state, federal) mandate the remodeling of apartments for accessibility?
5. Should private investors build apartment-shopping complexes for the disabled?
6. Should government construct and manage apartment-shopping complexes for the handicapped?
7. Should the disabled receive government subsidies to help with the cost of making accessible the houses or apartments they buy or rent?

Veterans

In this post-Vietnam War era, the obligations of society to those who have been disabled while serving in its armed forces are perhaps more unclear than ever. The belief by many that we should never have been involved in the Vietnam War complicates the matter. So does the fact that the mortality rate for spinal cord injuries dropped from 90% at the close of World War I to below 15% after World War II. (Incidentally, the same trend of lowered morality has been taking place for other disabilities, including Down's syndrome.)

Of the estimated 50 million or so disabled people in our country, some 3.5 million are veterans, with about 490,000 of these veterans of Vietnam (Kleinfield, 1979, pp. 24, 32, 149–50). As many as 75,000 servicemen were severely handicapped in Vietnam, as many as 25,000 totally disabled. Many are in government hospitals receiving inadequate care due to lack of facilities and personnel. Perhaps as many as 50% of disabled veterans and 80% of those paralyzed are unemployed (Kidder, 1978), although receiving disability payments. The problems faced by severely disabled veterans raise major citizenship related issues.

1. What should the obligations of the society be to those who are disabled in its armed forces?
2. Should the society's obligations differ depending upon whether the disability occurred in time of peace or war or whether, in the latter case, the disability was directly connected with war action?
3. Should government provisions for severely handicapped veterans differ from those for severely handicapped nonveterans? If so, in what way(s)?

A STRATEGY FOR STUDYING SOCIETAL ISSUES

Clearly, the preceding listing of issues is no more than that. Each set of issues has a history, a body of knowledge about present status, and set of relevant social science concepts in regard to future prospects. Although even passing mention of such issues in social studies classes would serve the important purpose of creating student awareness of the handicapped social movement, hopefully in depth study—ranging from the assignment of student projects to units for class study—will take place in every social studies class.

Engaging students in contemplation of the problems of the handicapped and the obligations of others to them is important in itself. Helping students to learn how to approach the consideration of societal issues productively is equally important. A strategy for studying societal issues can be helpful as a guide to you in making teaching decisions, and equally important for the conceptual frame it suggests to students as you put it into effect in assigning projects and conducting class units of study. The suggested strategy draws heavily on a perspective for viewing societal issues presented in *Teaching Public Issues in the High School* (Oliver & Shaver, 1974).

It is important to note that the following discussion of defining problems and dealing with value, factual, and language questions is not meant to imply a necessary order of thought or discussion. Although it is usually productive to begin by carefully delineating the problem and identifying the issue or issues to be dealt with, later discussion and thought will often clarify or even lead to changes in both problems and issues. Considering the relevant values, facts, and

language is not a neat, linear process, either. Fruitful thought and discussion occur when people state problems and issues carefully, and identify and deal with questions of value, fact, and language as relevant in arriving at a decision on an issue and the appropriate action to take on it. The following then are steps, although not necessarily sequential steps, in considering and discussing societal issues.

Identify the Problem(s)

We use the term *problem* somewhat as John Dewey did in his book *How We Think* to refer to a state of doubt, perplexity, or ambiguity. We would add frustration to the list. Such "states of mind" lead not only to thought but to action.

It is important to think of problems in two contexts in the study of societal issues. One context is that of the individuals who are personally involved. What is it, for example, about the lack of employment opportunities that frustrates handicapped persons? Careful statement of the problem in that context is crucial because the nature of the problem provides direction in stating issues, exploring their resolution, and deciding on appropriate action. For example, study of unemployment among the handicapped may differ depending upon whether the stated problem focuses on their desire to feel productive, their wish to be independent, or the loss to society from their exclusion from work. Ambiguously stated problems are not likely to lead to clear thought or well directed action.

A second context for considering a problem is that of the student. It is important that students not only intellectually understand the problem, as others see it, but that they have some sense of emotional involvement themselves. Clearly, words like *perplexity* and *frustration* refer to feelings as well as thought, and students should themselves have some personal sense of the perplexities and frustrations that make the problem significant to others.

The posing of problems can involve such data based approaches as descriptions of the past treatment of disabeld persons, figures on the number of handicapped persons in our society, the costs of aids and assistants, rates of unemployment or of college attendance, and differentials in pay for handicapped and nonhandicapped employees. Consideration of such data can have powerful emotive effects that will help to establish the problem for students as more than an intellectual abstraction. But other approaches will be necessary, too. Indeed, many of the activities suggested in Chapters 3 through 7, and the resources suggested in Chapter 10, serve this problem evoking function. Comprehending the force of handicapism, experiencing through simulations what it is like to be handicapped, viewing films and reading personal accounts by disabled persons, talking with them, studying the restrictions in the environment—each and all of these will help students to sense problems about the handicapped, both intellectually and emotively, and stimulate thought and action.

Of course, some students will understand the problems in the first, personal context because they are disabled or have close contact with someone who is. And, for all, the prospect that, unlike race and sex, one may join the handicapped minority at any time should be used not to frighten but to underline the potentially personal relevance of the problems.

State the Issue(s) Carefully

Any problem may raise a number of issues. For example, if the problem identified has to do with the difficulty handicapped persons have in paying for aids, attendants, and medical costs, issues could be stated in regard to what *should* be done to increase employment or in regard to what alternative means of financing such costs *should* be pursued and they could address government, institutional, or personal obligations. Notice that societal issues are posed as "should" or "ought" questions. That is, they express concerns about proper aims or actions. The clear statement of the issues to be pursued will help to guide study and discussion, as well as provide the framework for formulating pertinent policy and action decisions.

Identify and Weigh the Relevant Values

This element in the strategy has a number of steps to it. It is important to (a) identify the values that are relevant to each issue (that is, the principles that could serve as standards for judging decisions in regard to the issue) and (b) decide which values conflict with one another (that is, would lead to different decisions when applied). Next, one needs to (c) decide if the conflicting values are on the same level of importance (e.g., is personal convenience as important as equality of opportunity?), and (d) consider which value(s) should be supported by a decision. An important part of the last step is asking which decision (i.e.,

a decision supporting which values[s]) will most enhance human worth and dignity at this time in our society.

Resolving value conflicts in making decisions about issues requires attention to consequences: What will be the likely result of one decision or another? The examination of evidence as to likely results is important. But the personal consideration of possible outcomes is equally crucial. This might involve having the students (a) contemplate other situations involving the same values to see if they would accept the outcome in each situation (e.g., if equality of opportunity is interpreted to mean that interpreters should be provided by colleges for severely hearing impaired students, should interpreters also be provided for adults who are nonspeakers of English or who are not sufficiently fluent in English to succeed in college?); (b) put themselves in the position of a person effected negatively by the position (perhaps through a simulation or role playing) in order to see if they would accept the same principle as paramount if they were in that person's shoes (perhaps an employer faced with heavy facilities renovation costs); and (c) consider if they could accept the consequences if everyone acted to support the value (e.g., if everybody always let personal convenience dictate their relations with others).

Consider the Facts

The importance of facts to productive thought about and discussion of societal issues can hardly be overemphasized. Issues in regard to the handicapped are no exception. Discussions should be based on historical knowledge, and on social science data and concepts.

Historical context is particularly important in understanding a problem. Decisions about issues should take into account past efforts, if any, by the society to deal with problems. Information about the past as well as the present state of affairs is also crucial. For example, how many handicapped persons who would attend college have been or are currently being denied that opportunity by restrictive facilities or lack of learning aids? The answers to such questions have serious implications for policy.

The importance of social science data and concepts has already been touched on above in discussing the need to look at consequences in resolving value conflicts. Evidence as to the likely outcomes of different policies or actions can be an important social science contribution. Various social science concepts have potentially powerful contributions to make. The results of cost-benefit analyses could have significant implications for decisions on employment and education issues. The study of social change could help students evaluate the current status of the handicapped social movement and the course it is likely to take, or should take to achieve its goals, in the future. Conceptualizations of the nature of prejudice or of learned dependency could suggest policy alternatives or the likelihood of the success of alternatives that have been proposed.

Pay Attention to Language

Throughout the consideration and discussion of societal issues there must be concern with and care about language. This is true in identifying problems, stating issues, identifying and weighing values, and considering the facts. Are the meanings of key terms clear? For example, who are the "handicapped"? Are you, or others, being swayed unduly by the emotive loading of words or other symbols? Is the use of terms that evoke stereotypes interfering with thought or discussion? The extent to which such questions should be overarching considerations in thought about and discussions of societal issues can hardly be overemphasized. Because our language is so "natural" to each of us, it may take special effort on your part as a teacher to help students to stay aware of its effects on their thought and on the outcomes of discussions.

State a Decision

Decisions on societal issues are complex matters. There are at least three sources of perplexity. Such decisions involve (a) choices between important values, (b) uncertainties about present and future states of affairs, and (c) the effects of particular definitions of terms. So, not only will different persons disagree on appropriate policy and/or action, but thoughtful individuals will often come to limited decisions. They will have value qualifications ("I'm supporting this policy to enhance quality of education, *even though* it does infringe on the personal freedom and/or property rights of nonhandicapped persons"), factual "if's" ("I'm supporting this policy on the assumption that it will not force any companies out of business, and I would change my position if faced with evidence to the contrary"), and language stipulations ("I support this policy if *handicapped* is defined to mean . . .").

Awareness that decisions about societal issues have negative as well as positive implications, that there is uncertainty about reality and that further evidence may lead one to change one's position, and that the position one takes is to some extent dependent on the language used to state it are all significant dimensions of a decision making model that provides the basis for needed action while leaving open the possibility of future changes in policy or action as warranted.

Deciding upon Appropriate Action

Coming to a carefully reasoned and couched decision about a societal issue is a fundamental element of democratic citizenship. But making a decision on an issue is not sufficient. Thought and decision making should lead to action—or to a carefully considered decision not to act. Trying to influence government actions through letters, petitions, or presentations to official groups; bringing pressure to bear on institutions through letters to the editor, protests, boycotts; deciding to become personally involved in service organizations for the handicapped, or in making the school a more hospitable place for handicapped students—these and a multitude of other options are open to students. Helping students to think of alternatives and act upon them is a fundamental aspect of citizenship education.

CONCLUSION

Citizenship education must involve preparation for thinking about, discussing, and acting upon societal issues. This does not mean that the social studies program should focus only on such issues. However, the importance of reflective thought and action to citizenship is not the only justification for a strong issues orientation. Involving your students in problems such as presented by handicapism and lack of equity for the handicapped can also convey to them the meaningfulness of the content of history and other social studies courses.

Social studies teachers have been a major factor in the strides made against racism and sexism in our society in recent years by confronting both head on in their classes. The issues surrounding handicapism deserve the same treatment. Students do not need to be indoctrinated into opposing racism, sexism, or handicapism. If students are made more conscious of their own attitudes and those of society, involved in the consideration of the effects, and challenged to consider possible means of amelioration, their beliefs and attitudes will shift in more humane directions. Society will be influenced. The results will not be entirely satisfactory to many handicapped persons, while many of the nondisabled will contend that we have gone too far in responding to the demands of the disabled. That is the way of democracy. Positive movement toward the ideal of human dignity, but not utopia, is likely to occur when citizens are engaged in the consideration of problems of personal concern to segments of our people, in the context of our basic values and the knowledge available to us. To so engage our students is a fundamental challenge to social studies teachers.

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10

ASSESSING STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE HANDICAPPED

Tests are vital teaching tools. It is important to know where students are in their attitudes and understandings before instruction in order to plan how to proceed, as well as after instruction to know what the effects have been. Moreover, what they are tested on is, to most students, that which it is important to study. Perhaps equally important, taking tests reveals to students what they do or do not know or believe. Oftentimes this self knowledge is motivating. As we suggested in Chapter 3, discussion of student responses to test items can be an interesting introduction to an area of study.

We have approached the notion of assessing student attitudes toward and knowledge about the handicapped from the perspective of teachers rather than psychometricians or researchers. In fact, in looking through the research literature for assessment ideas we were surprised at how little has been done in the development of tests of this sort, and impressed with the lack of relevance of existing tests to the teaching situation.

Initially, it was our thought to produce two forms of a test (for pretest and posttest use) and then report reliability coefficients. On further thought, that approach seemed inappropriate, for a number of reasons:

1. To produce a test appropriate in reading level and orientation for all social studies students, junior high through high school, was deemed unrealistic both in terms of what can be expected of one set of items and our limited resources.
2. Every teacher will not want to devote the same amount of time to testing.
3. Every teacher will not want to assess the same attitudinal or understanding outcomes.
4. Teachers are less likely to be interested in overall test scores than in students' responses to individual items or clusters of items.
5. Our purpose was to *help teachers* with testing, not to develop a publishable test.

It is our assumption that individual teachers will want to decide on the outcomes to be assessed, the number of items to be used, and how to word items. What we provide in this chapter is a number of items that can be selected from, used intact, reworded, or used as the basis for generating additional items. The items reflect the content of earlier chapters of this reference text, as well as the concerns of the handicapped that we have found expressed in sources cited at the ends of chapters. In constructing your own tests, you may find helpful a commonly available and useable text on "teacher made" tests by Ebel (1979).

We have divided our items into two sets. First are items that assess understanding and knowledge. These are objective items, either multiple choice or true-false. We have indicated correct responses for these items. Second are items that assess attitudes. We suggest having students respond on what is called a Likert scale, indicating their degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement. There is no "correct" response to any one attitude item. Overall, however, an objective in social studies should be to have students gain more favorable attitudes toward the disabled and handicapped, both out of

concern for humaneness and as a basis for tolerant consideration of handicapped issues. At the same time, a strong positive response to all attitude items may indicate that the student has become too undiscerning in his or her own feelings and beliefs, or is not taking the test seriously.

KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING ITEMS

True-False

1. Whether a disability is a handicap to a person depends on the environment in which he or she is attempting to do something. (T)
2. Persons who are paralyzed from the neck down cannot be employed productively. (F)
3. Polio continues to leave large numbers of people paralyzed each year. (F)
4. Automobile accidents are a major source of serious disabilities. (T)
5. Handicapped people usually want to be with people like themselves. (F)
6. Cerebral palsy is the result of damage to the motor area of the brain. (T)
7. You can always tell if someone is mentally retarded by their looks. (F)
8. Most people have too high expectations for disabled persons. (F)
9. Paraplegics have health problems to be concerned about that nondisabled persons don't. (T)
10. Mental retardation may be the result of brain injury. (T)
11. Most disabled people are born that way. (F)
12. Most emotionally disturbed people are also mentally retarded. (F)
13. Most businesses had made their buildings accessible to handicapped people prior to enactment of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. (F)
14. With modern technology, any disabled person can live a normal life if he or she wishes to do so. (F)
15. A person with a learning disability in one culture might not be disabled in a different culture. (T)
16. Most handicapped students were taught in special classes before passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. (T)
17. A disability, such as severe visual loss, may not be a handicap for some occupations. (T)
18. Most dwarfs are unusually bright intellectually. (F)
19. Most disabled veterans are employed. (F)
20. Most persons with cerebral palsy are also mentally retarded. (F)
21. The crime rate, especially for crimes involving sex and violence, is higher for mentally retarded persons than for the general population. (F)
22. Blind people are more frequently good musicians. (F)
23. Disabled people are more often sad than nondisabled people. (F)
24. Most physically handicapped people are smarter than other people. (F)
25. One of the biggest problems of disabled persons is the attitudes others have toward them. (T)
26. Most paralyzed people also have brain damage. (F)
27. Disabled people are usually more outgoing and friendlier than nondisabled people. (F)
28. In our society the disabled are able to find jobs more easily than other people. (F)
29. Most disabled persons have the same interests as other people. (T)
30. Persons born with severe hearing impairments usually develop better language skills than other people. (F)
31. Most mentally retarded people will have to be cared for all their lives. (F)
32. Most disabled people tend to think primarily about how their disability keeps them from leading a "normal" life. (F)
33. Persons with learning disabilities are usually mentally retarded as well. (F)
34. The courts have ruled in favor of the right of disabled children to full, public education since before the Civil War. (F)
35. Thomas Edison was severely hearing impaired. (T)

Multiple Choice

1. The most common cause of cerebral palsy is:
   a. Poor nutrition.
   b. Injury in athletic events.
   X c. Lack of oxygen to the brain before or at birth.
   d. Genetic characteristics of the mother or father.
2. The unemployment rate among the disabled is:

a. About the same as for other people.
X b. Higher than for other people.
c. Lower than for other people.
d. Not known.

3. Braille is:
X a. Raised symbols for the blind.
b. A special type of hearing aid for hearing impaired persons.
c. The name of the person who invented the wheelchair.
d. An especially severe type of epileptic seizure.

4. A stereotype is:
a. An old movie.
X b. An oversimplified view of a group of people.
c. The same as prejudice.
d. Always incorrect.

5. The controversy over teaching hearing impaired people to read lips and speak versus teaching them how to communicate manually is mainly based on the difficulty:
a. That deaf people have in learning sign language or the manual alphabet.
b. In learning to read lips and to speak when one can't hear.
X c. That normal hearing people have in understanding manual communication.
d. In getting those who can read lips to wear hearing aids.

6. The major concern of most handicapped people is:
a. Not having other people stare at them.
b. Getting an education.
c. Having other people realize how hard their lives are.
X d. Living happy, productive, independent lives.

7. The number of disabled people in our country is about:
a. 1 million
b. 10–15 million
X c. 40–50 million
d. 100–200 million

8. The number of severely disabled veterans of the Vietnam War is about:
a. 10,000
b. 50,000
X c. 75,000
d. 150,000

9. A decibel is:
X a. A way of describing loudness of sound.
b. A number which a learning disabled person can't read.
c. A special gearshift for a handicapped person.
d. The only noise a severely disabled person can hear.

10. A paraplegic is a person who:
a. Helps on an ambulance.
b. Gives physical therapy to disabled people.
X c. Is paralyzed.
d. Has greater strength than normal.

11. When employed, disabled people:
a. Rarely can keep up with other people on the job.
b. Must usually have expensive special equipment.
X c. Tend to be absent from work less than others.
d. Tend to rise quickly to responsible, managerial type positions.

12. Down's syndrome:
a. Is a type of cerebral palsy.
b. Is rarely hereditary.
c. Can usually be corrected with drugs.
X d. Is a genetic disorder accompanied by mental retardation.

13. A prosthetic is:
X a. A device to replace a disabled person's limb.
b. A disabled person who makes his or her living from other people's pity.
c. A professional organizer of charities for the disabled.
d. A physical therapist.

14. Ethnic minorities, women, and the handicapped:
X a. Have been objects of unfair discrimination.
b. Have had different common civil rights goals.
c. Enjoy privileged economic status in our society.
d. Are all protected by the Civil Rights Act of 1968.

15. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975:
a. Provided funds for the education of handicapped children in special schools.
b. Was called a step backward by most parents of handicapped children.
c. Went against recent court decisions on the handicapped children's right to education.
X d. Supported educating handicapped

children in regular classrooms whenever possible.

16. Mainstreaming refers to:
    X a. Putting handicapped children in regular classrooms.
    b. Having nondisabled students tutor handicapped students in special classrooms.
    c. Having handicapped workers in the same offices as other workers.
    d. Making nondisabled athletes compete in wheelchair athletic events.
17. The President of the United States whose legs were disabled from polio was:
    a. Thomas Jefferson
    b. Teddy Roosevelt
    X c. Franklin D. Roosevelt
    d. Harry Truman
18. In spina bifida, the spinal canal is:
    a. Damaged in an accident.
    X b. Incompletely formed due to a birth defect.
    c. Not affected.
    d. Stronger than normal.
19. Compared to normal sighted persons, those who are blind:
    a. Have more responsive auditory nerves.
    X b. Pay more attention to what they hear.
    c. Are less often deaf.
    d. Can tell more about your personality from your voice.
20. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973:
    a. Was passed before any state laws prohibiting discrimination against the handicapped.
    b. Added nothing new to the Civil Rights Act of 1968.
    X c. Prohibited discrimination against the handicapped only in businesses receiving federal funds.
    d. Was objected to by activist groups such as Disabled in Action because it held the disabled up to ridicule.

ATTITUDE ITEMS

Students should be asked to respond to these items on the following scale: Disagree strongly, disagree, disagree slightly, agree slightly, agree, agree strongly. Note that on some items, such as number 5, an "agree strongly" response indicates a favorable attitude toward the handicapped; on other items, such as numbers 1 through 4, an "agree strongly" response indicates a nonfavorable attitude toward the handicapped. Discussion of the attitudinal implications of different items could be an excellent way to help students clarify their own thoughts and feelings.

1. The worst thing that could happen to a person is to be seriously disabled.
2. Blind people seem less human than those who can see.
3. Most disabled people are to be pitied.
4. Being physically beautiful or handsome is one of the most important things in life.
5. I feel comfortable talking to blind persons.
6. Generally, disabled persons just don't try hard enough to overcome their disabilities.
7. Handicapped children do not deserve to have more money spent on their education than is spent for other students.
8. I can't help but laugh at people who stutter.
9. I go out of my way to try to communicate with persons who are deaf.
10. I could really enjoy watching mentally retarded children participate in the Special Olympics.
11. I would not consider going on a date with a person who
    a. was blind
    b. was deaf
    c. had cerebral palsy
    d. was mentally retarded
    e. was paralyzed
    f. had no arms or legs
    g. stutters
    (Note: Several items can be constructed using the different disabilities.)
12. I enjoy watching the physically disabled participate in sports, such as wheelchair basketball or wheelchair marathons.
13. At a social event, I would feel uncomfortable talking to someone who was
    a. blind
    b. deaf
    c. mentally retarded
    d. paralyzed and in a wheelchair
    e. a stutterer
    Note: Several items can be constructed using the different disabilities.
14. It would be better if severely handicapped children were not allowed in school with other children.
15. Physically disabled people should not be allowed to drive cars with special controls.

16. It is important that all business buildings (stores, theaters, restaurants) be accessible to disabled people.
17. All government buildings (schools, post offices, courthouses) should be fully accessible to disabled people.
18. Helping disabled people is really not my concern.
19. Disabled veterans ought to be provided with the best possible medical care and other assistance.
20. Disabled persons spend too much time feeling sorry for themselves.
21. I would not want to have a
    a. severely handicapped person
    b. mentally retarded person
    c. blind person
    d. deaf person
    e. person with cerebral palsy
    f. person with paralyzed arms and legs

    a. living in the same neighborhood
    b. attend the same church
    c. as a next door neighbor
    d. in my class at school
    e. as a friend
    f. as a brother or sister

    Note: This is several items in one. You will want to construct individual items for your students. Their responses can be used to discuss the idea of social distance and how it affects persons' attitudes.
22. Disabled persons should not be allowed to marry because they cannot have a normal family life.
23. Disabled people who marry and have children are irresponsible.
24. I would not go back to a restaurant that let one of the following sit at the table next to me.
    a. a severely disabled person
    b. a blind person
    c. a deaf person
    d. a person with cerebral palsy who had to be fed
    e. a mentally retarded person
    f. a person without arms or legs

    Note: Several items can be constructed using the different disabilities.
25. I would hesitate to ask a disabled person if I could help him or her do something such as eat or get into a wheelchair.
26. Equality of opportunity must be provided for disabled people at all costs.
27. Mentally retarded persons should be treated as children.
28. Handicapped people are making unreasonable demands on the rest of the society.
29. Educating mentally retarded persons is really a waste of time and money.
30. There is probably no way that a severely handicapped person could be as effective on the job as a nondisabled person.
31. I would like to be a teacher of the mentally retarded.
32. Severely disabled persons should not be allowed to attend entertainment events and ruin the good time had by others.
33. I would like to be a physical therapist for those with severe handicaps, such as severe cases of cerebral palsy.
34. It is wrong to use laws to force people to treat the handicapped differently than they ordinarily would.
35. Most severely handicapped persons cannot really benefit from going to college.
36. I admire parents who stand up for the rights of their disabled children.
37. I would like to be an attendant for someone who was paralyzed.
38. It would not be right for employers to hire handicapped persons in preference over other persons who are equally qualified for the jobs.
39. Those who are severely handicapped have no business going into politics.
40. Those with handicaps should not impose themselves on others by coming to social events such as dances.
41. I would not want to work in an institution for profoundly retarded persons.
42. I would consider marrying someone who was
    a. severely disabled
    b. blind
    c. deaf
    d. mentally retarded
    e. paralyzed or otherwise physically disabled
    f. a stutterer

    Note: Several items can be constructed using the different disabilities.
43. Landlords should be able to refuse to rent apartments to people who are severely disabled, such as blind or paralyzed.
44. I find it somewhat frightening to be around people who are severely disabled.

45. The government has done all it should to help handicapped persons.

ESSAY ITEMS

Knowledge and attitude items such as suggested above can be helpful both in assessing learning and encouraging discussion. However, in this use as testing tools, they do not measure or encourage the thought and decision making which are central to citizenship education. Essay items provide the opportunity for students to decide what knowledge, concepts, and values are relevant to issues in regard to handicapism and equity for the handicapped, and to apply their reasoning skills to such issues. Essay items may be fairly simple in their demands, for example:

1. The owner of a local restaurant refused to serve a high school student who, because of cerebral palsy, is in a wheelchair and has uncontrolled movement, including drooling. The reason given was that the presence of the student would disturb other customers. There is no local or state law in your community governing such situations. Should there be?

Or, such items may be quite complex and demanding:

2. The President of the United States calls the Secretaries of the Department of Health and Human Services and the Department of Education to the Oval Office. He points out that handicapism is a major problem confronting the nation and asks the two secretaries to prepare a plan of action, drawing on knowledge from the social sciences and history, for doing away with handicapism in this country. He says that he would first like a brief memo outlining the basic elements in the plan and justifying them. Prepare such a memo.

Of course, the above items are only suggestive, and each teacher has to develop essay items appropriate for their objectives and students. To serve the function of assessing reasoning and synthesis, essay questions should not have already been answered in class, so that students only have to recall an earlier discussion. Note, too, that the above items provide little structure for the student in order to assess student ability to recall and apply appropriate knowledge, concepts, and values on their own. For example, in responding to Item 1, will the student, without cues, deal with conflicting values, and qualify his or her decision in terms of them? In responding to Item 2, will the student define what is meant by *handicapism* and state the related problem carefully before going on to propose a plan of action?

As citizens making decisions, we must pull together and apply what we can remember and discover. Choosing "correct" responses on a true-false or mulitple choice test is not an option, except in the rare case of being called upon for a poll. Essay items can approximate that unstructured setting. And in doing so, they not only make assessment more valid, but provide excellent opportunities for student learning.

NONWRITTEN ASSESSMENT

Essay tests do have disadvantages. For students who have difficulty expressing themselves in writing, essay tests do not provide valid indications of knowledge or thought. Also, it is hard to know from students' responses on essay tests, as it is with "objective" types of tests, what they will do or think in "real life" situations.

Natural settings can be used to obtain valuable evaluation information, especially if your purpose is not to assess students for grading but to get feedback on the extent to which their views and behavior have changed as a result of studying about handicapism and the handicapped. Observing behavior, or indicators of behavior, in natural settings as a form of assessment has been labeled "unobtrusive measurement" by social science researchers. (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 1966, have provided an interesting, even entertaining discussion of unobtrusive measurement. They give many examples—such as looking at floor tile wear to determine which exhibits are most popular in a museum.) There are many school settings that lend themselves to nonobtrusive assessment.

Careful attention to comments that students make during classroom discussions and exercises, as well as before class starts, in the hallway, at lunch, and during extracurricular activities, can provide worthwhile information about their attitudes. In appraising what is said, it can be helpful to think in terms of a rough hierarchy of attitudes toward the disabled.* At the first level, the nondisabled person views those who

* The following idea of an hierarchy is based on a suggestion by Caroline N. Preston.

are disabled, especially if the disability is very noticeable, with fear and revulsion, avoiding them to the extent possible. The next level is pity: The nondisabled person finds it hard to believe that disabling conditions, especially severe ones, can be accepted and coped with in living a near "normal" life, and tends to over react with sympathy. Next comes partial acceptance. Disabled persons are accepted as individuals as far as daily work, school, and group social situations are concerned. But there is lack of acceptance in intimate personal relationships such as dating or marriage. At the highest level of the hierarchy, there is full acceptance of disabled persons as individuals, with any disability considered as only one among the many attributes on which humans differ.

The hierarchy of attitudes toward the disabled can be used as a point of view from which to appraise behavior as well as comments, if there are handicapped students in your school. Do the behaviors of your nondisabled students when with their handicapped peers indicate movement up the hierarchy? For example, do they more often volunteer to help handicapped students who need assistance rather than "not noticing" that aid may be needed? Are handicapped students included in social groupings and activities more frequently? Are nondisabled students more direct and open in communicating with handicapped students, for example, in regard to whether they would like assistance or the activities in which they feel able to participate?

Aside from directly observing what students say and do, you may want to gather more indirect information. For example, are more books on disabled persons being checked out of the school library by your students? Are unassigned materials on the handicapped that you leave lying on tables in your classroom picked up and read? You undoubtedly will be able to think of other such measures that would indicate whether study of the handicapped was having the effects you desire.

Another excellent source of information on the success of your efforts in handicapped education can be conversations with your students, either as part of formal class discussions or in informal situations. If students volunteer comments on the relevance of topics being studied to handicapism and equal opportunity for the handicapped, that can be an excellent indicator of knowledge and attitude change. Also, do not hesitate to ask students whether the exercises and activities are having an effect on how they view and act with disabled persons. Educational research has depended heavily on inferring attitudes from responses to paper and pencil tests. As a consequence, we often forget that frequently the most valid way to find out how a person is feeling, thinking, and behaving is simply to ask.

A FINAL WORD

We began this reference text by urging teachers to integrate handicapped studies throughout the social studies curriculum. It is appropriate that the final chapter in the text deals with testing. We reveal much to our students through the tests we administer. Whether students come to view handicapism and equity for the handicapped as important topics and reasoning about the related issues as vital will depend to a large extent on the perceptions conveyed through test items. Moreover, students can learn a great deal from taking tests. An important part of integrating handicapped studies in social studies will be to include items about the disabled and handicapped in your tests.

Your own observations of and questions to

students can also reveal much about the influence on your students' knowledge and attitudes of the various activities and exercises you use. We believe that the outcomes will be satisfying to you as a social studies teacher and beneficial to your students, to the disabled, and to the society.

REFERENCES

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Webb, E. J., Campbell, D. T., Schwartz, R. D., & Sechrest, L. *Unobtrusive measures: Nonreactive research in the social sciences*. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966.

Appendix
RESOURCE MATERIALS AND ORGANIZATIONS

There are many resource materials available for use in teaching about the handicapped and handicapism in the social studies—and the number is increasing rapidly. For that reason, aside from space constraints, we have chosen not to list the many relevant books, films, filmstrips, movies, and videotapes. Several of the publications already cited do contain reasonably recent lists—for example, the following in the References for Chapter 4: Barnes, Berrigan, and Biklen (1978), Bonkbinder (1978), Cashdollar and Martin (1978); and Litton, Banbury, and Harris (1980) and *Pick a Title* (1980) cited in Project 12 of Chapter 5. We have, however, provided below a listing of books on special topics likely to be relevant to social studies courses.

Of particular importance are sources of up to date information and resource materials on the handicapped. We have listed a number of these below. Many can also provide materials, such as Braille equipment, to use in simulations, as well as being willing to respond to students' request for information for their projects.

ORGANIZATIONS

Government Agencies

Administration on Aging
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
330 C Street, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

American National Standards Institute
1430 Broadway
New York NY 10018

Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board
U.S. Department of Education
330 C Street, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

Office of Special Education
U.S. Department of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington DC 20202

Bureau of Developmental Disabilities
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
330 C Street, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

National Institute of Handicapped Research
U.S. Department of Education
330 C Street, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

Office for Civil Rights
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
330 Independence Avenue, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

Office of the Assistant to the Secretary for Programs for the Elderly and Handicapped
U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
Washington DC 20410

Office of Federal Contracts Compliance Programs
Employment Standards Administration
U.S. Department of Labor

600 D Street, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

Office for Handicapped Individuals
U.S. Department of Education
200 Indepndence Avenue, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped
1111 20th Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20210

President's Committee on Mental Retardation
7th and D Streets, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

Rehabilitation Services Administration
U.S. Department of Education
330 C Street, S.W.
Washington DC 20201

United States Office of Personnel Management
Washington Area Office
P.O. Box 52
Washington DC 20044

Veterans Administration
Health Care Facilities Service
810 Vermont Avenue, N.W.
Washington DC 20420

Regional Centers for Services to Deaf-Blind Children

New England: Perkins School for the Blind, 175 North Beacon Street, Watertown MA 02172

Midwest: Michigan Department of Education, Davenport Building, Ottawa and Capitol, Lansing MI 48933

South Atlantic: North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Division for Exceptional Children, Education Building, Raleigh NC 27611

Mid-Atlantic (North) and Caribbean: New York Institute for Education of the Blind, 999 Pelham Parkway, Bronx NY 10469

South Central: University of Texas, Callier Hearing and Speech Center, 1966 Inwood Road, Dallas TX 75235

Northwest: Department of Social and Health Services, 3411 South Alaska Street, Seattle WA 98118

Southeast: Alabama Institute for the Deaf-Blind, Box 698, Talladega AL 35160

Southwest: Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento CA 95814

Mountain-Plains: Suite 304, 165 Cook Street, Denver CO 80203

Texas: Texas Education Agency, 201 East 11th Street, Austin TX 78701

Regional Resource Centers for Implementation of Public Law 94–142

New England: Trinity College, Colchester Avenue, Burlington VT 05401

New York: Syracuse University, 400 Huntington Hall, 150 Marshall Street, Syracuse NY 13210

Mid-Atlantic: George Washington University, 1901 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W., Washington DC 20006

Mid-South: University of Kentucky, Research Foundation, Porter Building, Room 131, Lexington KY 40506

Florida: Florida Atlantic University, 1236 North University Drive, Plantation FL 33322

Region VI: Accuracy Corporation, 660 Ackerman Road, Columbus OH 43220

Minnesota: University of Minnesota, Burton Hall, Minneapolis MN 55105

Louisiana: P.O. Box 44064 Capital Station, 626 N. Fourth Street, Baton Rouge LA 70804

Mid-West: Drake University, 1332-26th Street, Des Moines IA 50311

Utah: Utah State University, Exceptional Child Center, Logan UT 84322

California: 3325 Wilshire Boulevard, Suite 1345, Los Angeles CA 90010

Oregon: University of Oregon, Clinical Service Building, Third Floor, 1590 Willamette Street, Eugene OR 97401

Private Organizations—General

American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities
1200 15th Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20005

American Congress of Rehabilitation Medicine
30 N. Michigan Avenue
Chicago IL 60602

Center for Independent Living
2539 Telegraph Avenue
Berkeley CA 94704

Closer Look
National Information Center for the Handicapped
1201 16th Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20036

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston VA 22091

Disability Rights Center
1346 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington DC 20036

Disabled American Vetrans
National Headquarters
P.O. Box 1403
Cincinnati OH 45214

Human Resources Center
Willets Road
Albertson NY 11507

ICD Rehabilitation and Research
340 East 24th Street
New York NY 10010

The Kids Come In Special Flavors Co.
P.O. Box 562
Dayton OH 45405

Rehabilitation International USA
219 East 44th Street
New York NY 10017

Sister Kenny Institute
Chicago Avenue at 27th Street
Minneapolis MN 55407

Private Organizations—Specific Disabilities

Blind and Partially Sighted
American Council for the Blind
1211 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington DC 20036

American Foundation for the Blind
15 W. 16th Street
New York NY 10011

Association for Education of the Visually Handicapped
711 14th Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20005

National Association for Visually Handicapped
3201 Balboa Street
San Francisco CA 94121

National Federation of the Blind
1346 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington DC 20036

National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
16 E. 40th Street
New York NY 10019

Deaf and Partial Hearing
Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf
1537 35th Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20007

The Better Hearing Institute
1430 K Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20005

Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf
P.O. Box 894
Columbia MD 21044

Materials Specialist
Gallaudet College
Kendall Green
Washington DC 20002

National Association of the Deaf
814 Thayer Avenue
Silver Spring MD 20927

Emotionally Disturbed
Mental Health Association
1800 North Kent Street
Arlington VA 22209

Learning Disabled
Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
5225 Grace Street
Pittsburgh PA 15236

National Association for Brain-Injured Children
95 Madison Avenue
New York NY 10016

Motor Impaired
Epilepsy Foundation of America
1828 L Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20036

National Multiple Sclerosis Society
205 East 42nd Street
New York NY 10010

Muscular Dystrophy Association of America
1790 Broadway
New York NY 10019

United Cerebral Palsy Association
66 East 34th Street
New York NY 10016

Mentally Retarded
The Joseph P. Kennedy Jr. Foundation
1701 K Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20006

The National Association for Retarded Citizens
2709 Avenue E East
Arlington TX 76011

People First
P.O. Box 12642
Salem OR 97309

Physically Disabled
National Association of the Physically Handicapped
6437 Grandville Avenue
Detroit MI 48228

National Congress of Organizations of the Physically Handicapped
6106 North 30th Street
Arlington VA 22207

National Easter Seal Society
2023 W. Ogden Avenue
Chicago IL 60612

National Paraplegic Foundation
333 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago IL 60601

Spina Bifida Association of America
Room 319
343 South Dearborn Street
Chicago IL 60604

Size
Little People of America
Box 126
Owatonna MN 55060

Speech Impaired
The American Speech-Language and Hearing Association
1801 Rockville Pike
Rockville MD 20852

National Association of Hearing and Speech Agencies
919 18th Street, N.W.
Washington DC 20006

Speech Foundation of America (stuttering)
152 Lombardy Road
Memphis TN 38111

MATERIALS ON SPECIAL TOPICS

Accessibility

Access America: The Architectural Barriers Act and you. Washington DC: Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board, 1980.

Accessibility Information. Washington DC: The Association of Physical Plant Administrators of Universities and Colleges, 1980.

A list of guidebooks for handicapped travelers (4th ed.). Washington DC: The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, 1975.

American National Standard specifications for making buildings and facilities accessible to and usable by physically handicapped people. New York: American National Standards Institite, 1980.

Asher, J., & Asher, J. *How to accommodate workers in wheelchairs*. Washington DC: The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, 1976.

Cotler, S. R., & DeGraff, A. H. *Architectural accessibility for the disabled on college campuses*. Washington DC: Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board, 1976.

Environmental modifications for the visually impaired. New York: American Foundation for the Blind, 1977.

Fire safety for hearing-impaired people. Washington DC: Gallaudet College, 1980.

Getting through college with a disability. Washington DC: The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, 1977.

Guilty buildings. Washington DC: The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, no date.

Hale, G. *The source book for the disabled*. New York: Paddington Press, 1979.

Handbook for design. Washington DC: The Veterans Administration, 1978.

Highway rest areas for handicapped travelers. Washington DC: The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, 1975.

Home in a wheelchair. Washington DC: Paralyzed Veterans of America, 1977.

HUD programs that can help the handicapped. Washington DC: US Department of Housing and Urban Development, 1978.

Job ready. Olympia WA: Department of Social and Health Services, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, no date.

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Mace, R. L. *Applications of basic design specifications*. Washington DC: National Center for a Barrier Free Environment, 1978.

Milner, M. *Accessibility as a matter of course for every remodeling project: Barrier-free environments*. Washington DC: National Center for a Barrier Free Environment, 1977.

Milner, M. *Breaking through the deafness barrier: Environmental accommodations for hearing impaired people*. Washington DC: Gallaudet College, 1979.

Tools for accessibility: A selected list of resources for barrier free design. Washington DC: National Center for a Barrier Free Environment, 1980.

Wheeling to fire safety: Fire emergency procedures for paralyzed and other handicapped people. New York: Eastern Paralyzed Veterans Association, 1980.

Employment

Employment of persons with physical (includes visual and hearing) impairments in the Federal Service. Washington DC: Office of Personnel Management, 1980.

Hiring the handicapped: Facts and myths. Washington DC: President's Committee on Employment of the handicapped, 1977.

The Rights of Handicapped Persons

Affirmative action to employ handicapped people. Washington DC: The President's Committee on Employment on the Handicapped, no date.

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